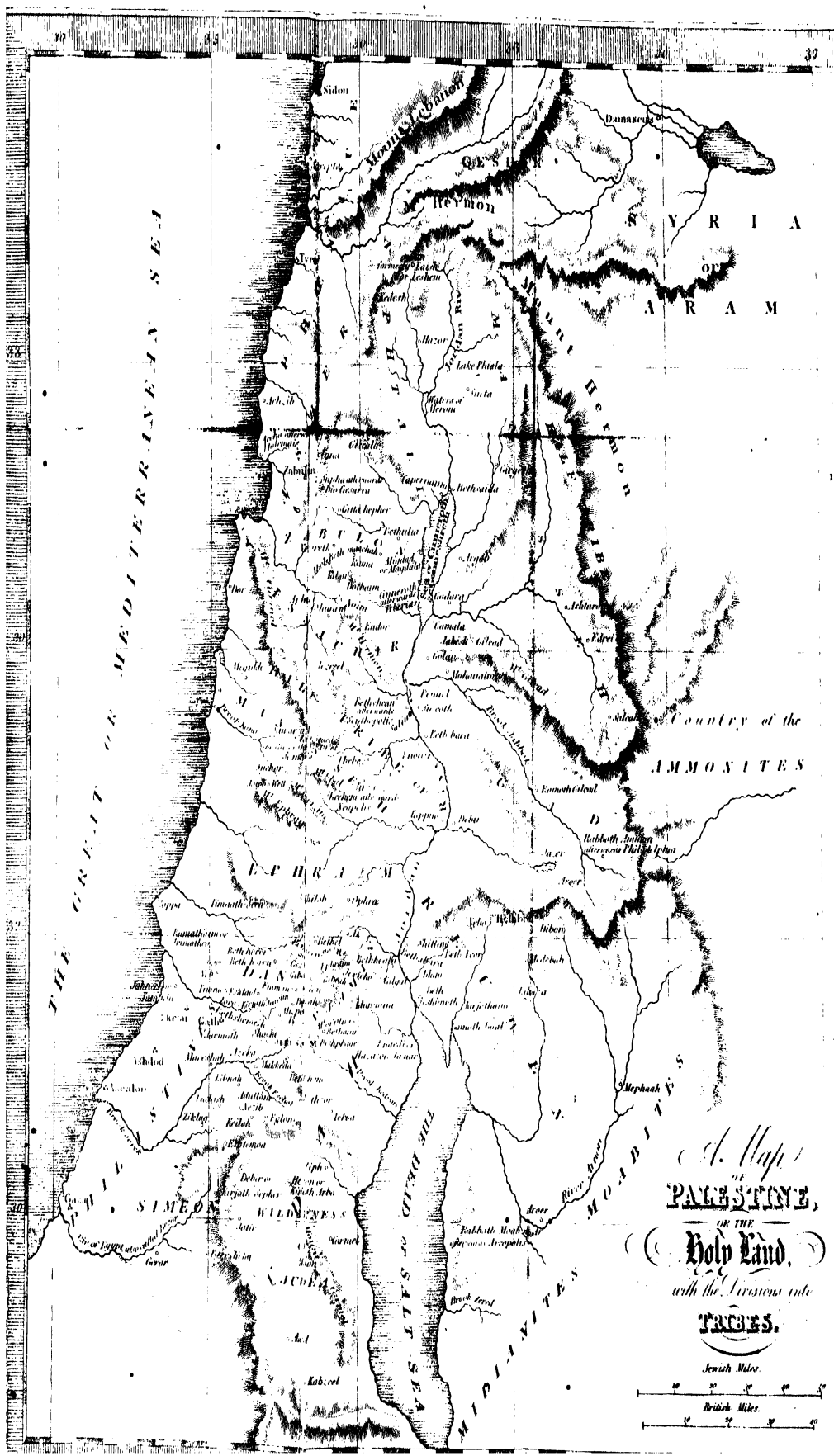


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PALESTINE,
OR THE
Holy Land,
with the Divisions into
TRIBES.



INTRODUCTION

TO THE

Critical Study and Knowledge

HOLY SCRIPTURES.

BY

THOMAS HARTWELL HORNE, M.A.

FIFTH EDITION, CORRECTED.

ILLUSTRATED WITH NUMEROUS MAPS AND FAC-SIMILES OF
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INTRODUCTION

TO THE

CRITICAL STUDY AND KNOWLEDGE

OF

THE HOLY SCRIPTURES.

SUMMARY OF BIBLICAL GEOGRAPHY AND ANTIQUITIES.

PART I.

A SKETCH OF THE HISTORICAL AND PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY OF THE HOLY LAND.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY OF THE HOLY LAND.

I. *Names.*—II. *Boundaries.*—III. *Inhabitants before the conquest of Canaan by the Israelites.*—IV. *Division by Joshua.*—*Allotments of the twelve tribes.*—V. *The Kingdom under David and Solomon.*—VI. *The Kingdoms of Judah and Israel.*—VII. *Divisions in the Time of Jesus Christ.*—VIII. *Account of the City of JERUSALEM:*—1. *Its Situation;*—2. *Names;*—3. *Fortifications and Walls;*—4. *Remarkable Buildings;*—5. *Notice of the successive Captures of the City;*—6. *Sketch of its Present State.*—IX. *Historical Epochs.*

I. **THIS** country has in different ages been called by various names, which have been derived either from its inhabitants, or from the extraordinary circumstances attached to it. Thus, in Jer. iv. 20. it is termed generally the *land*: and hence, both in the Old and New Testament, the word *Γη*, which is sometimes rendered *earth*, is by the context in many places determined to mean the promised land of Israel; as in Josh. ii. 3. They be come to search out all *the country* (Sept. *την γην*); Matt. v. 5. The meek shall *inherit the earth* (*γην*, the land); and in Luke iv. 25. where a great famine is said to have prevailed throughout all the *land*, (*ἐπὶ πᾶσαν τὴν γῆν*). In like manner, *οἰκουμένη*, which primarily means the inhabited world, and is often so rendered, is by the connection of the discourse

restrained to a particular country, as in Isa. xli. 5. (Sept.); and to the land of Judah, as in Luke ii. 39, xxi. 24, Acts xi. 28. and James v. 17. But the country occupied by the Hebrews, Israelites, and Jews, is in the sacred volume more particularly called,

1. The *Land of Canaan*, from Canaan, the youngest son of Ham, and grandson of Noah, who settled here after the confusion of Babel, and divided the country among his eleven children, each of whom became the head of a numerous tribe, that ultimately became a distinct nation. (Gen. x. 15. *et seq.*)

2. The *Land of Promise* (Heb. xi. 9.), from the promise made by Jehovah to Abraham, that his posterity should possess it (Gen. xii. 7. and xiii. 15.); who being termed Hebrews, this region was thence called the *Land of the Hebrews*.¹ (Gen. xl. 15.)

3. The *Land of Israel*, from the Israelites, or posterity of Jacob, having settled themselves there. This name is of most frequent occurrence in the Old Testament: it is also to be found in the New Testament (as in Matt. ii. 20, 21.); and in its larger acceptation comprehended all that tract of ground on each side the course of the river Jordan, which God gave for an inheritance to the children of Israel. Within this extent lay all the provinces or countries visited by Jesus Christ, except Egypt, and consequently almost all the places mentioned or referred to in the four Gospels.

4. The *Land of Judah*. Under this appellation was at first comprised only that part of the region which was allotted to the tribe of Judah; though the whole land of Israel appears to have been occasionally thus called in subsequent times, when that tribe excelled all the others in dignity. After the separation of the ten tribes, that portion of the land which belonged to the tribes of Judah and Benjamin, who formed a separate kingdom, was distinguished by the appellation of *the land of Judah* (Psal. lxxvi. 1.) or of *Judaea*; which last name the whole country retained during the existence of the second temple, and under the dominion of the Romans.

5. The *Holy Land*; which appellation is to this day conferred on it by all Christians, because it was chosen by God to be the immediate seat of his worship, and was consecrated by the presence, actions, miracles, discourses and sufferings of the Lord Jesus Christ, and also because it was the residence of the holy patriarchs, prophets, and apostles. This name does not appear to have been used by the Hebrews themselves, until after the Babylonish Captivity, when we find the prophet Zechariah applying it to his country. (ii. 12.) After this period it seems to have become a common appellation: we meet with it in the apocryphal book of Wisdom (xii. 3.), and also in the second book of Maccabbees. (i. 7.) The whole world was divided by the ancient Jews into two general parts, *the land of Israel*, and *the land out of Israel*, that is, all the countries

¹ This appellation (the land of the Hebrews) is recognised by Pausanias (lib. vi. c. 24. *in fine*). By heathen writers the Holy Land is variously termed, Syrian Palestine, Syria, and Phenicia; but as these appellations are not applied generally in the Scriptures to that country any further notice of them is designedly omitted.

inhabited by the *nations of the world*, or the Gentiles: to this distinction there seems to be an allusion in Matt. vi. 32. All the rest of the world, together with its inhabitants (Judæa excepted), was accounted as profane, *polluted*, and *unclean* (see Isa. xxxv. 8. lii. 1. with Joel iii. 17. Amos vii. 17. and Acts x. 14.); but though the whole land of Israel was regarded as *holy*, as being the place consecrated to the worship of God, and the inheritance of his people, whence they are collectively styled *saints*, and a holy nation or people in Exod. xix. 6. Dent. vii. 6. xiv. 2. xxvi. 19. xxxiii. 3. 2 Chron. vi. 41. Psal. xxxiv. 9. l. 5. 7. and lxxix. 2.; yet the Jews imagined particular parts to be vested with more than ordinary sanctity according to their respective situations. Thus the parts situated beyond Jordan were considered to be less holy than those on this side: walled towns were supposed to be more clean and holy than other places, because no lepers were admissible into them, and the dead were not allowed to be buried there. Even the very dust of the land of Israel was reputed to possess such a peculiar degree of sanctity, that when the Jews returned from any heathen country, they stopped at its borders, and wiped the dust of it from their shoes, lest the sacred inheritance should be polluted with it: nor would they suffer even herbs to be brought to them from the ground of their Gentile neighbours, lest they should bring any of the mould with them, and thus defile their pure land. To this notion our Lord unquestionably alluded when he commanded his disciples to shake off the dust of their feet (Matt. x. 14.) on returning from any house or city that would neither receive nor hear them; thereby intimating to them, that when the Jews had rejected the Gospel, they were no longer to be regarded as the people of God, but were on a level with heathens and idolaters.¹

6. The appellation of *Palestine*, by which the whole land appears to have been called in the days of Moses (Exod. xv. 14.), is derived from the Philistines, a people who migrated from Egypt, and, having expelled the aboriginal inhabitants, settled on the borders of the Mediterranean; where they became so considerable as to give their name to the whole country, though they in fact possessed only a small part of it.

II. The extent of the Holy Land has been variously estimated by geographers; some making it not to exceed one hundred and seventy or eighty miles in length, from north to south, and one hundred and forty miles from east to west in its broadest parts (or towards the south), and about seventy miles in breadth, where narrowest, towards the north. From the latest and most accurate maps,

¹ Lightfoot, Hor. Heb. in Matt. x. 14.; Roland, *Antiquitates Hebraicae*, pp. 1. 17. This distinction of holy and unholy places and persons throws considerable light on 1 Cor. i. 28. where the apostle, speaking of the calling of the Gentiles and the rejection of the Jews, says, that God hath chosen *base things of the world, and things that are despised, yea, and things which are not* (that is, the Gentiles,) *to bring to naught* (Gr. *to abolish*) *things that are*; in other words, to become God's church and people, and so to cause the Jewish church and economy to cease. See Whiston in loc.

however, it appears to have extended nearly two hundred miles in length, and to have been about eighty miles in breadth about the middle, and ten or fifteen more or less, where it widens or contracts.

By the Abrahamic covenant recorded in Gen. xv. 18. the original grant of the Promised Land to the Israelites, was *from the river of Egypt unto the river Euphrates*. The Boundaries of it are thus accurately described by Moses (Numb. xxxiv. 1—16.), before the Israelites entered into it: “*When ye come into the land of Canaan, (this is the land that shall fall unto you for an inheritance, even the land of Canaan, with the coasts thereof,) your SOUTH QUARTER shall be from the wilderness of Zin, along by the coast of Edom,*” or Idumæa. This was its general description. The boundary itself is next traced: “*And your south border shall be the utmost coast of the Salt Sea eastward;*” or as explained by Joshua’s description afterwards, (xv. 2—4.) “*the south border of the tribe of Judah began from the bay of the Salt Sea that looketh southward;*” or by combining both, from the south-east corner of the Salt Sea, or Asphaltite Lake. “*From thence, your border shall turn southwards to the ascent of Akkrabbim,*” or the mountains of Accaba, (signifying “ascent” in Arabic) which run towards the head of the Elanitic, or Eastern gulph of the Red Sea; passing (we may presume) through the sea-ports of Elath and Eziongeber, on the Red Sea, which belonged to Solomon (1 Kings ix. 26.), though they are not noticed in this place. “*Thence it shall pass on to [the wilderness of] Zin,*” on the east side of Mount Hor, including that whole mountainous region within the boundary; “*and the going forth thereof shall be to Kadesh Barnea southwards; and it shall go on to Hazar Addar¹, and pass on to Azmon.*” “*And the border shall fetch a compass,*” or form an angle, “*from Azmon,*” or turn westwards “*towards the river of Egypt,*” or Pelusiatic branch of the Nile; “*and its outgoings shall be at the sea,*” the Mediterranean.²

“*And as for the WESTERN BORDER, ye shall have the Great Sea for a border. This shall be your west border.*” The Great Sea is the Mediterranean, as contrasted with the smaller seas or lakes, the Red Sea, the Salt Sea, and the sea of Tiberias, or Galilee.

“*And this shall be your NORTH BORDER: from the Great Sea you shall point out Hor ha-hor, (not “Mount Hor,” as rendered in our English Bible, confounding it with that on the southern border, but) “the mountain of the mountain³,” or “the double mountain,”* or Mount Lebanon, which formed the northern frontier of Palestine, dividing it from Syria; consisting of two great parallel ranges,

¹ Joshua (xv. 3.) interposes two additional stations, Hezron and Kirkaa, before and after Addar, or Hazar Addar, which are not noticed by Moses.

² This termination of the southern border westwards, is exactly conformable to the accounts of Herodotus and Pliny: the former represents Mount Casius lying between Pelusium and the Sirbonic lake, as the boundary between Egypt and Palestine Syria, (3, 5.) the latter reckoned the Sirbonic lake itself as the boundary. (Nat. Hist. 5. 13.)

³ The Septuagint Version has judiciously rendered it, *opus to opus to opus*, “the

called Libanus and Antilibanus, and running eastwards from the neighbourhood of Sidon to that of Damascus.

"From Hor ha-hor ye shall point your border to the entrance of Hamath," which Joshua speaking of the yet unconquered land, describes, "*All Lebanon, towards the sun-rising, from (the valley of) Baal Gad, under Mount Hermon, unto the entrance of Hamath.*" (Josh. xiii. 5.) This demonstrates, that Hor ha-hor corresponded to all Lebanon, including Mount Hermon, as judiciously remarked by Wells¹, who observes, that it is not decided which of the two ridges, the northern or the southern, was properly Libanus; the natives at present call the southern so, but the Septuagint and Ptolemy called it Antilibanus. — "*From Hamath it shall go on to Zedad, and from thence to Ziphron, and the goings out of it shall be at Hazar Enan,*" (near Damascus, Ezek. xlviii. 1.) "This shall be your north border.

"And ye shall point out your EAST BORDER from Hazar Enan to Shephan, and the coast shall go down to Riblah on the east side of Ain ("the fountain" or springs of the river Jordan) and the border shall descend, and shall reach unto the [east] side of the sea of Chinnereth. And the border shall go down to Jordan on the east side, and the goings out of it shall be at the Salt Sea." There it met the southern border, at the south-east corner of that sea, or the Asphaltite lake.

"This shall be your land with the coasts thereof round about" in circuit.²

Such was the admirable geographical chart of the Land of Promise, dictated to Moses by the God of Israel, and described with all the accuracy of an eye-witness. Of this region, however, the Israelites were not put into immediate possession. In his first expedition, Joshua subdued all the southern department of the Promised Land, and in his second the northern, having spent five years in both (Josh. xi. 18.): what Joshua left unfinished of the conquest of the whole, was afterwards completed by David and Solomon. (2 Sam. viii. 3—14. 2 Chron. ix. 26.) In the reign of the latter was realised the Abrahamic covenant in its full extent. *And Solomon reigned over all the kingdoms from the river (Euphrates) unto the land of the Philistines, and the border of Egypt:—for he had dominion over all the region on this side of the river (Euphrates) from Tipsah (or Thapsacus situated thereon) even to Azzah (or Gaza with her towns and villages,) "unto the river" of Egypt, southward, "and the Great Sea," westward, (Josh. xv. 47.) even over all the kings on this side the river (Euphrates). 1 Kings iv. 21—24.*³

But the Israelites did not always retain possession of this tract, as is shewn in the succeeding pages. It lies far within the temperate zone, and between 31 and 33 degrees of north latitude, and was

¹ Sacred Geography, vol. ii. p. 271.
² Dr. Hales's Analysis of Chronology, vol. i. pp. 414—416.
³ Ibid. vol. i. pp. 416, 417.

bounded on the west by the Mediterranean or Great Sea, as 'it is often called in the Scriptures; on the east by Arabia; on the south by the river of Egypt (supposed to be not the Nile, but the Sichor, Josh. xiii. 3. Jer. ii. 18.), and the Desert of Sin, or Beersheba, the southern shore of the Dead Sea, and the river Arnon; and on the north by the chain of mountains termed Antilibanus, near which stood the city of Dan: hence in the sacred writings we frequently meet with the expression, *from Dan to Beersheba*, in order to denote the whole length of the land of Israel.¹

III. The land of Canaan, previously to its occupation by the Israelites, was possessed by the descendants of Canaan, the youngest son of Ham, and grandson of Noah; who divided the country among his eleven sons, each of whom was the head of a numerous clan or tribe. (Gen. x. 15—19.) Here they resided upwards of seven centuries, and founded numerous republics and kingdoms. In the days of Abraham, this region was occupied by ten nations; the Kenites, the Kenizzites, and the Kadmonites, to the east of Jordan; and westward, the Hittites, Perizzites, Rephaims, Amorites, Canaanites, Girgashites, and the Jebusites. (Gen. xv. 18—21.) These latter in the days of Moses were called the Hittites, Girgashites, Amorites, Canaanites, Perizzites, Hivites, and Jebusites (Deut. vii. 1. Josh. iii. 10. xxiv. 11.); the Hivites being substituted for the Rephaims. These seven nations were thus distributed:—

The *Hittites* or sons of Heth, the *Perizzites*, the *Jebusites*, and the *Amorites*, dwelt in the mountains, or hill country of Judæa, southward; the *Canaanites* dwelt in the midland by the sea, westward, and by the coast of Jordan eastward; and the *Girgashites*, or Ger-gesenes, along the eastern side of the sea of Galilee; and the *Hivites* in Mount Lebanon, under Hermon, in the land of Mizpeh or Gilead, northward. (Compare Numb. xiii. 29. Josh. xi. 3. Judges iii. 3. and Matt. viii. 28.) Of all these nations the Amorites became the most powerful, so as to extend their conquests beyond the river Jordan over the Kadmonites; whence they are sometimes put for the whole seven nations, as in Gen. xv. 16. Josh. xxiv. 15. and 2 Sam. xxi. 2.

These nations were the people whom the children of Israel were commanded to exterminate. Within the period of seven years Moses conquered two powerful kingdoms on the east, and Joshua thirty-one smaller kingdoms on the west of Jordan, and gave their land to the Israelites; though it appears that some of the old inhabitants were permitted by Jehovah to remain there, *to prove their conquerors, whether they would hearken to the commandments of the Lord, which he commanded their fathers by the hand of Moses*; and the nations thus spared were afterwards suffered to oppress the Israelites with great severity. (Numb. xxi. 21—35. xxxii. and xxxiv. Deut. ii. 26—37. iii. 1—20. Josh. vi. 21. Judg. i. 4.) Nor were

¹ For a full investigation of the boundaries of the promised land, see Michaelis's *Commentaries on the Law of Moses*, vol. i. pp. 55—97.

they finally subdued until the reigns of David and Solomon, who reduced them to the condition of slaves: the latter employed 153,600 of them in the most servile parts of his work, in building his temple, palace, &c. (2 Sam. v. 6--8. 1 Chron. xi. 4--8. 1 Kings ix. 20. 2 Chron. ii. 17, 18. and viii. 7, 8.)

Besides these devoted nations there were others, either settled in the land at the arrival of the Israelites, or in its immediate environs, with whom the latter had to maintain many severe conflicts: they were six in number.

1. The PHILISTINES were the descendants of Mizraim, the second son of Ham; who, migrating from Caphtor or the north-eastern part of Egypt, very early settled in a small strip of territory along the sea-shore, in the south-west of Canaan, having expelled the Avites, who had before possessed it. (Deut. ii. 23. Amos ix. 7. Jer. xlvii. 4.) The district occupied by the Philistines was in the time of Joshua distinguished into five lordships, denominated, from the chief towns, Gaza, Ashdod, Askelon, Gath, and Ekron. They were the most formidable enemies perhaps whom the children of Israel had to encounter: and of the inveteracy of their enmity against the latter, we have abundant evidence in the sacred writings. Though they were subdued by David, and kept in subjection by some succeeding monarchs, yet they afterwards became so considerable, that from them the Holy Land was called by the Greeks Palestine, which appellation it retains to this day. The country was finally subdued, about the year of the world 3841 (B. C. 159) by the illustrious general, Judas Maccabæus; and about sixty-five years afterwards Jannæus burnt their city Gaza, and incorporated the remnant of the Philistines with such Jews as he placed in their country.

2. The MIDIANITES were the descendants of Midian, the fourth son of Abraham by Keturah. (Gen. xxv. 2.) In the Scriptures two different places are assigned as the territory of the Midianites: the one almost the north-east point of the Red Sea, where Jethro the father-in-law of Moses was a prince or priest. These western or southern Midianites were also called Cushites, because they occupied the country that originally belonged to Cush. They retained the knowledge of the true God, which appears to have been lost among the eastern or northern Midianites who dwelt on the east of the Dead Sea. (Gen. xxv. 2--6. xxxvii. 28. Exod. ii. iii. xviii.) These northern Midianites were either subject to or allied with the Moabites; and their women were particularly instrumental in seducing the Israelites to idolatry and other crimes; which wickedness was punished by Jehovah with the almost total destruction of their nation (Numb. xxii. 4--7. xxv. xxxi. Josh. xiii. 21.); although they afterwards recovered so much of their former strength as to render the Israelites their tributaries, and for seven years greatly oppressed them. From this bondage, Gideon delivered his countrymen with a very inferior force, and almost annihilated the Midianites, whose surviving remnants are supposed to have been incorporated with the Moabites or Ammonites.

3, 4. The **MOABITES** and **AMMONITES** were the descendants of the incestuous offspring of Lot. (Gen. xix. 30—38.) The Moabites dwelt on the east of the Jordan, in a tract whence they had expelled the Emims, a gigantic aboriginal race. The Ammonites had their residence north-east of the Moabites, which territory they had wrested from the Zamzumim, another gigantic tribe. The country occupied by these two tribes was exceedingly pleasant and fertile; they were violently hostile to the Israelites, whom they at different times terribly oppressed. They were conquered by David, and for about 150 years continued in subjection to the Israelites. On the division of the kingdom they fell to the share of the ten tribes; and after several attempts to regain their liberty under succeeding kings of Israel (some of whom severely chastised them, and imposed heavy tributes upon them), they are supposed to have effected their complete liberation during the unhappy reign of Ahaz.

5. The **AMALEKITES** were descended from Amalek the son of Ham, and grandson of Noah, and were very formidable enemies to the Israelites. They were settled on the south coast westward of Jordan, and first opposed the Israelites after their departure from Egypt, but were defeated and doomed to destruction (Exod. xvii. 8—16. Deut. xxv. 17—19.); which was commenced by Saul, and finished by David.

6. The **EDOMITES** were the descendants of Esau or Edom; they possessed themselves of the country southward of Judæa, which was originally occupied by the Horites, who are supposed to have been finally blended with their conquerors. It was a mountainous tract, including the mountains of Seir and Hor, and the provinces of Dedan, Teman, &c. Inveterate foes to Israel, they were rendered tributary by David, and for 150 years continued subject to the kingdom of Judah. After various attempts, they revolted under the reign of Jehoram, and ultimately succeeded in rendering themselves independent. (2 Chron. xxi. 8—10.)

IV. On the conquest of Canaan by the children of Israel, Joshua divided it into twelve parts, which the twelve tribes drew by lot, according to their families: so that, in this division every tribe and every family received their lot and share by themselves, distinct from all the other tribes. Thus, each tribe remained a distinct province, in which all the freeholders were not only Israelites, but of the same tribe, or descendants from the same patriarch: and the several families were placed together in the same neighbourhood, receiving their inheritance in the same part or subdivision of the tribe. Or, each tribe may be said to live together in one and the same county, and each family in one and the same hundred: so that the inhabitants of every neighbourhood were relations to each other, and of the same families. Nor was it permitted that an estate in one tribe should become the property of any person belonging to another tribe, even by the marriage of an heiress. See the case of Zelophehad, in Numb. xxxvi. 6, 7.

In order to preserve as nearly as possible the same balance, not only between the tribes, but between the heads of families and the families of the same tribes, it was further provided that every man's possession should be unalienable.

The wisdom of this constitution had provided for a release of all debts and servitudes every seventh year (Deut. xv. 1, 2. 12.), that the Hebrew nation might not moulder away from so great a number of free subjects, and be lost to the public in the condition of slaves. It was moreover provided, by the law of jubilee, which was every fiftieth year, that then all lands should be restored, and the estate of every family, being discharged from all incumbrances, should return to the family again. For this there was an express law. (Lev. xxv. 10.) *Ye shall hallow the fiftieth year, and proclaim liberty throughout all the land, unto all the inhabitants thereof: it shall be a jubilee unto you, and ye shall return every man to his possession, and ye shall return every man unto his family.* It is further enacted, *And the land shall not be sold for ever; (or, as in the margin, be quite cut off, or alienated from the family;) for the land is mine, for ye are strangers and sojourners with me.*

By this agrarian law of the Hebrews, all estates were to be kept in the same families, as well as the same tribes to which they originally belonged at the first division of the land by Joshua; so that how often soever a man's estate had been sold or alienated from one jubilee to another, or through how many hands soever it had passed, yet in fifty years every estate must return to the heirs of the persons who were first possessed of it.

It was at first an excellent constitution, considering the design of this government, to make so equal a division of the land among the whole Hebrew nation, according to the poll; it made provision for settling and maintaining a numerous and a brave militia of six hundred thousand men, which, if their force was rightly directed and used, would be a sufficient defence not only against any attempts of their less powerful neighbours, to deprive them of their liberty or religion; but considering moreover the natural security of their country, into which no inroads could be made, but through very difficult passes, it was a force sufficient to defend them against the more powerful empires of Egypt, Assyria, or Babylon.

The wisdom of this constitution is yet further observable, as it provided against all ambitious designs of private persons, or persons in authority, against the public liberty; for no person in any of the tribes, or throughout the whole Hebrew nation, had such estates and possessions, or were allowed by the constitution to procure them, that could give any hopes of success in oppressing their brethren and fellow-subjects. They had no riches to bribe indigent persons to assist them, nor could there at any time be any considerable number of indigent persons to be corrupted. They could have no power to force their fellow-subjects into a tame submission to any of their ambitious views. The power in the hands of so many freeholders in each tribe, was so unspeakably superior to any

power in the hands of one or of a few men; that it is impossible to conceive how any such ambitious designs should succeed, if any person should have been found so weak as to attempt them. Besides, this equal and moderate provision for every person, wisely cut off the means of luxury, with the temptations to it from example. It almost necessarily induced the whole Hebrew nation to be both industrious and frugal, and yet gave to every one such a property, with such an easy state of liberty, that they had sufficient reason to esteem and value them, and endeavour to preserve and maintain them.¹

In this division of the land into twelve portions, the posterity of Ephraim and Manasseh (the two sons of Joseph) had their portions, as distinct tribes, in consequence of Jacob having adopted them. The *northern* parts of the country were allotted to the tribes of Asher, Nephthali, Zebulon, and Issachar; the *middle* parts to that of Ephraim and one half of the tribe of Manasseh; the *southern* parts to those of Judah, Benjamin, Dan, and Simeon; and the *Country beyond Jordan* (which was first conquered by the Israelites, before the subjugation of the whole land of Canaan,) was allotted to the tribes of Reuben, Gad, and the other half tribe of Manasseh. The tribe of Levi, indeed (which formed in effect a thirteenth tribe), possessed no lands. By divine command there were assigned to the Levites, who were appointed to minister in holy things, without any secular incumbrance, the tenths and first-fruits of the estates of their brethren. Forty-eight cities were appropriated to their residence, thence called Levitical cities: these were dispersed among the twelve tribes, and had their respective suburbs, with land surrounding them. Of these cities the Kohathites received twenty-three, the Gershonites thirteen, and the Merarites twelve; and six of them, three on each side of Jordan², were appointed to be *Cities of Refuge*, whither the inadvertent man-slayer might flee, and find an asylum from his pursuers, and be secured from the effects of private revenge, until cleared by a legal process. (Numb. xxxv. 6—15. Deut. xix. 4—10. Josh. xx. 7, 8.)³ The way to these cities the Israelites were commanded to make good, so that the man-slayer might flee thither without impediment, and with all imaginable expedition: and, according to the Rabbins, there was an inscription set up at every cross road — “Asylum, Asylum.” It has been thought that there is an allusion to this practice in Luke iii. 4—6., where John the Baptist is described *as the voice of one crying in the wilderness, Prepare ye the way of the Lord, make his paths straight*. He was the Messiah’s forerunner, and in that

¹ Lowman on the Civil Government of the Hebrews, pp. 46—49.

² The cities of refuge on the *eastern* side of Jordan were, Bezer, in the tribe of Reuben; Ramoth Gilead, in that of Gad; and Golan, in the half tribe of Manasseh. Those on the *western* side of Jordan, were Hebron, in the tribe of Judah; Shechem, in that of Ephraim; and Kedesh-Naphtali, in that of Naphtali.

³ Most of the North American nations had similar places of refuge (either a house or a town), which afforded a safe asylum to a manslayer, who fled to it from the revenger of blood. *Adair’s History of the American Indians*, pp. 158, 159, 416.

character was to remove the obstacles to men's fleeing to him as their asylum, and obtaining the salvation of God.¹

It is remarkable that all the sacerdotal cities lay within the southern tribes, eight belonging to Judah and four to Benjamin, and only one to Simeon, which is supposed to have been situated on the frontier of Judah, and to have remained under the controul of the latter tribe. This was wisely and providentially designed to guard against the evils of schism between the southern and northern tribes. For by this arrangement all the sacerdotal cities (except one) lay in the faithful tribes of Judah and Benjamin, to maintain the national worship in them, in opposition to the apostacy of the other tribes. Otherwise the kingdom of Judah might have experienced a scarcity of priests, or have been burdened with the maintenance of those who fled from the kingdom of Israel (2 Chron. xi. 13, 14.), when the base and wicked policy of Jeroboam made priests of the lowest of the people to officiate in their room.

Of the country beyond Jordan, which was given by Moses to the tribes of Reuben and Gad, and to the half tribe of Manasseh (Deut. iii. 12—17. Josh. xii. 1—6. xiii.), the tribe of REUBEN obtained the southern part, which was bounded on the south from Midian by the river Arnon; on the north, by another small river; on the east, by the Ammonites and Moabites; and on the west by the river Jordan. Its principal cities were Ashdod-Pizgah, Bethabara, Beth-peor, Bezer, Heshbon, Jalaaz, Kedemoth, Medeba, Mephaath, and Midian.² The territory of the tribe of GAD was bounded by the river Jordan on the west, by the canton of the half tribe of Manasseh on the north, by the Ammonites on the east, and by the tribe of Reuben on the south. Its chief cities were Betharan (afterwards called Julias), Debir, Jazer, Mahanaim, Mizpeh, Penuel, Rabbah, or Rabbath, (afterwards called Philadelphia,) Succoth, and Tishbeh. The region allotted to the HALF TRIBE OF MANASSEH on the eastern side of the Jordan, was bounded on the south by the territory of the tribe of Gad; by the sea of Cinnereth (afterwards called the lake of Gennesareth and the sea of Galilee), and the course of the river Jordan from its source towards that sea, on the west; by Mount Lebanon, or more properly Mount Hermon, on the north, and north-east; and by Mount Gilead on the east. Its principal cities were Ashtaroth-Carnaim, Auran, Beesh-terah, Bethsaida, Gadara, Gerasa, Geshur, and Jabesh-Gilead. This tribe was greatly indebted to the bravery of Jair, who took *threescore cities*, besides several small towns or villages, which he called *Havoth-Jair*, or the *Dwellings of Jair*. (1 Chron. ii. 23. Numb. xxxii. 41.)

¹ Godwin's *Moses and Aaron*, p. 78. Jennings's *Jewish Antiquities*, book ii. ch. 5. p. 295. Edinb. 1808.

² As this sketch of the historical geography of the Holy Land is designed chiefly to give the reader an idea of the several divisions which obtained at different times, the reader is referred to the Geographical Index at the end of this volume, for an account of the principal places mentioned in the sacred writings, particularly in the New Testament.

The remaining nine tribes and a half were settled on the western side of the Jordan.

The canton of the tribe of JUDAH was bounded on the east by the Dead Sea, and on the west by the tribes of Dan and Simeon, both of which lay between it and the Mediterranean Sea. Judah was reckoned to be the largest and most populous of all the twelve tribes; and its inhabitants were the most valiant; it was also the chief and royal tribe, from which, in subsequent times, the whole kingdom was denominated. The most remarkable places or cities in this tribe were Adullam, Azekah, Bethlehem, Bethzor, Debir, or Kiriath-sepher, Emmaus, Engedi, Kiriath-arba or Hebron, Libnah, Makkedah, Maon, Massada, Tekoah, and Ziph.

The inheritance of the tribes of DAN and of SIMEON was within the inheritance of the tribe of Judah, or was taken out of the portion at first allotted to the latter. The boundaries of these two tribes are not precisely ascertained; though they are placed by geographers to the north and south-west of the canton of Judah, and consequently bordered on the Mediterranean Sea. The principal cities in the tribe of Dan were Ajalon, Dan or Lesham, Eltekeh, Eshtaol, Gath-rimmon, Gibbethon, Hirshemesh, Joppa, Modin, Timnath, and Zorah. The chief cities in the tribe of Simeon, were Ain, Beersheba, Hormah, and Ziklag.

The canton allotted to the tribe of BENJAMIN lay between the tribes of Judah and Joseph, contiguous to Samaria on the north, to Judah on the south, and to Dan on the west, which last parted it from the Mediterranean. It did not contain many cities and towns, but this defect was abundantly supplied by its possessing the most considerable, and the metropolis of all, the city of Jerusalem. The other places of note in this tribe were Anathoth, Beth-el, Gibeah, Gibeon, Gilgal, Hai, Mizpeh, Ophrah, and Jericho.

To the north of the canton of Benjamin lay that allotted to the tribe of EPHRAIM, and that of the other HALF TRIBE OF MANASSEH. The boundaries of these two districts cannot be ascertained with precision. The chief places in Ephraim, were Bethhoron the Nether and Upper, Gezer, Lydda, Michmash, Naioth, Samaria, Schechem, Shiloh, and Timnath-Serah. After the schism of the ten tribes, the seat of the kingdom of Israel being in Ephraim, this tribe is frequently used to signify the whole kingdom. The chief places in the half tribe of Manasseh, were Abel-meholath, Bethabara, Bethshan, (afterwards called Scythopolis), Bezek, Endor, Enon, Gath-rimmon, Megiddo, Salim, Ophrah, and Tirzah.

To the north, and more particularly to the north-east of the half tribe of Manasseh, lay the canton of ISSACHAR, which was bordered by the celebrated plain of Jezreel, and its northern boundary was Mount Tabor. Some writers make this tribe to extend to the Mediterranean Sea; but for this hypothesis there is no foundation. The chief cities of Issachar, were Aphek, Beth-shehem, Dothan, Kishoth, Jezreel, Nain or Nuni, Ramoth, and Shunem. On the north and west of Issachar resided the tribe of ZEBULON.

Its chief places were Bethlehem, Cinnereth or Chinnereth, Gath-hepher, Jokneam, Remmon-Methoar, and Shimroncheron.

The tribe of ASHER was stationed in the district to the north of the half tribe of Manasseh, and west of Zebulun; consequently it was a maritime country. Hence it was said (Judg. v. 17.) that *Asher continued on the sea-shore, and abode in his creeks*. Its northern boundary was mount Libanus or Lebanon; and on the south it was bounded by mount Carmel, and the canton of Issachar. Its principal cities were Abdon, Achshaph, Helkath, Mishal, and Rehob. This tribe never possessed the whole extent of district assigned to it, which was to reach to Libanus, to Syria, and Phenicia, and included the celebrated cities of Tyre and Sidon.

Lastly, the tribe of NAPHTALI or Nephtali occupied that district in the northern part of the land of Canaan, which lay between mount Lebanon to the north, and the sea of Cinnereth (or Genesareth) to the south, and between Asher to the west, and the river Jordan to the east. Its chief places were Abel or Abel-Beth-Maachah, Hamoth-dor, Harosheth of the Gentiles, Kedesh, and Kiriathaim.

V. The next remarkable division was made by king Solomon, who divided his kingdom into twelve provinces or districts, each under a peculiar officer. These districts, together with the names of their respective presidents, are enumerated in 1 Kings iv. 7—19. From the produce of these districts every one of these officers was to supply the king with provisions for his household, in his turn, that is, each for one month in the year. The dominions of Solomon extended *from the river unto the land of the Philistines, and unto the border of Egypt: they brought presents, and served Solomon all the days of his life*. (1 Kings iv. 21.) Hence it appears that the Hebrew monarch reigned over all the provinces from the river Euphrates to the land of the Philistines, even to the frontiers of Egypt. The Euphrates was the *eastern* boundary of his dominions; the Philistines were *westward*, on the Mediterranean sea; and Egypt was on the *south*. Solomon therefore had, as his tributaries, the kingdoms of Syria, Damascus, Moab, and Ammon; and thus he appears to have possessed all the land which God had covenanted with Abraham to give to his posterity.

VI. Under this division the Holy Land continued till after the death of Solomon, when ten tribes revolted from his son Rehoboam, and erected themselves into a separate kingdom under Jeroboam, called the *Kingdom of Israel*. The two other tribes of Benjamin and Judah, continuing faithful to Rehoboam, formed the *Kingdom of Judah*. This kingdom comprised all the southern parts of the land, consisting of the allotments of those two tribes, together with so much of the territories of Dan and Simeon as were intermixed with that of Judah: its royal city or metropolis was Jerusalem, in the tribe of Benjamin. The kingdom of Israel included all the northern and middle parts of the land, occupied by the other ten tribes; and its capital was Samaria, in the tribe of Ephraim, situ-

ated about thirty miles north-east of Jerusalem. But this division ceased, on the subversion of the kingdom of Israel by Shalmaneser, king of Assyria, after it had subsisted two hundred and fifty-four years.

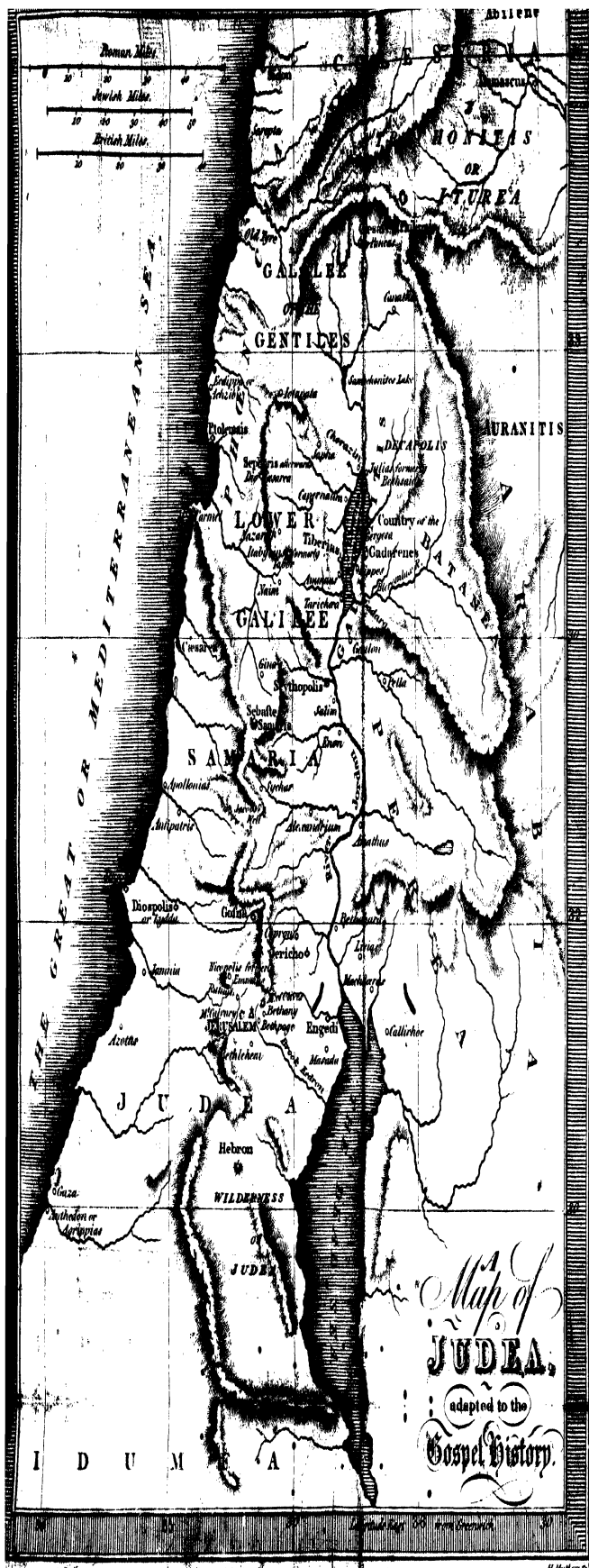
VII. The Holy Land fell successively into the hands of the Syrian kings, the Greeks and Romans. It was in the possession of the last-mentioned people in the time of Jesus Christ, when it was divided into five separate provinces, viz. Galilee, Samaria, Judæa, Peræa, and Idumæa.

1. GALILEE.—This portion of the Holy Land is very frequently mentioned in the New Testament: its limits seem to have varied at different times. It comprised the country formerly occupied by the tribes of Issachar, Naphtali, and Asher, and by part of the tribe of Dan; and is divided by Josephus into *Upper* and *Lower Galilee*.

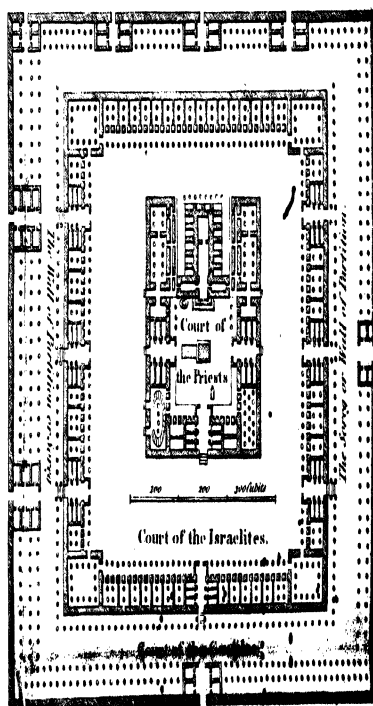
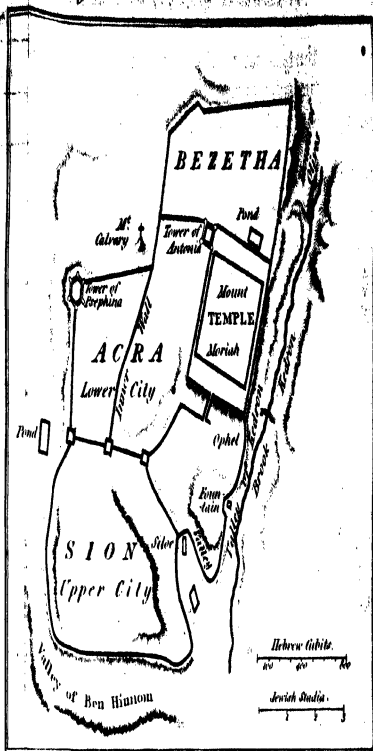
Upper Galilee abounded in mountains; and from its vicinity to the Gentiles who inhabited the cities of Tyre and Sidon, it is called *Galilee of the Nations*, or *of the Gentiles* (Isa. ix. 1. Matt. iv. 15.), and the *Coasts of Tyre and Sidon*. (Mark vii. 31.) The principal city in this region was Cæsarea Philippi; through which the main road lay to Damascus, Tyre, and Sidon.

Lower Galilee, which lay between the Mediterranean sea and the lake of Gennesareth, was situated in a rich and fertile plain, and according to Josephus, was very populous, containing upwards of two hundred cities and towns. This country was most honoured by our Saviour's presence. Hither Joseph and Mary returned with him out of Egypt, and here he resided until his baptism by John. (Matt. ii. 22, 23. Luke ii. 39—51. Matt. iii. 13. Luke iii. 21.) Hither he returned after his baptism and temptation (Luke iv. 14.): and, after his entrance on his public ministry, though he often went into other provinces, yet so frequent were his visits to this country, that he was called a Galilean. (Matt. xxvi. 69.) The population of Galilee being very great, our Lord had many opportunities of doing good; and, being out of the power of the priests at Jerusalem, he seems to have preferred it as his abode. To this province our Lord commanded his apostles to come and converse with him after his resurrection (Matt. xxviii. 7. 16.): and of this country most, if not the whole, of his apostles were natives, whence they are all styled by the angels *men of Galilee*. (Acts i. 11.) The Galileans spoke an unpolished and corrupt dialect of the Syriac, compounding and using γ (*ain*) for \aleph (*aleph*), \beth (*caph*) for \beth (*beth*), τ (*tau*) for \daleth (*daleth*); and also frequently changed the gutturals.¹ This probably

¹ Dr. Lightfoot, to whom we are indebted for the above remark, has given several instances in Hebrew and English, which are sufficiently amusing. One of these is as follows: A certain woman intended to say before the Judge, *My Lord, I had a picture, which they stole; and it was so great, that if you had been placed in it, your feet would not have touched the ground.* • But she so spoiled the business with her pronunciation, that, as the glosser interprets it, her words had this sense. *Sir, slave, I had a beam, and they stole thee away; and it was so great, that if they had hung thee on it, thy feet would not have touched the ground.* Lightfoot's *Chorographical Century of the Land of Israel*, ch. lxxxvii.



PLAN of JERUSALEM, from D'Anville.



The TEMPLE of JERUSALEM, according to LAMY and CALMET.

proceeded from their great communication and intermixture with the neighbouring nations. It was this corrupt dialect that led to the detection of Peter, as one of Christ's disciples. (Mark xiv. 70.) The Galileans are repeatedly mentioned by Josephus as a turbulent and rebellious people, and upon all occasions ready to disturb the Roman authority. They were particularly forward in an insurrection against Pilate himself, who proceeded to a summary mode of punishment, causing a party of them to be treacherously slain, during one of the great festivals, when they came to sacrifice at Jerusalem.¹ This character of the Galileans explains the expression in St. Luke's Gospel (xiii. 1.) *whose blood Pilate mingled with their sacrifices*; and also accounts for his abrupt question, *when he heard of Galilee*, and asked if Jesus were a Galilean? (Luke xxiii. 6.) Our Redeemer was accused before him of seditious practices, and of exciting the people to revolt; when, therefore, it was stated, among other things, that he had been in Galilee, Pilate caught at the observation, and enquired if he were a Galilean; having been prejudiced against the inhabitants of that district, by their frequent commotions, and being on this account the more ready to receive any charge which might be brought against any one of that obnoxious community.²

The principal cities of Lower Galilee, mentioned in the New Testament, are Tiberias, Chorazin, Bethsaida, Nazareth, Cana, Capernaum, Nain, Caesarea of Palestine, and Ptolemais.

2. SAMARIA. — The division of the Holy Land, thus denominated, derives its name from the city of Samaria, and comprises the tract of country which was originally occupied by the two tribes of Ephraim and Manasseh within Jordan, lying exactly in the middle between Judaea and Galilee, so that it was absolutely necessary for persons who were desirous of going expeditiously from Galilee to Jerusalem, to pass through this country. This sufficiently explains the remark of St. John, (iv. 4.) which is strikingly confirmed by Josephus.³ The three chief places of this district, noticed in the Scriptures, are Samaria, Sichem, or Sechem, and Antipatris.

3. JUDEA. — Of the various districts, into which Palestine was divided, Judaea was the most distinguished. It comprised the territories which had formerly belonged to the tribes of Judah, Benjamin, Simeon, and to part of the tribe of Dan; being nearly co-extensive with the ancient kingdom of Judah. Its metropolis was JERUSALEM: and of the other towns or villages of note contained in this region, the most remarkable were Arimathea, Azotus or Ashdod, Bethany, Bethlehem, Bethphage, Emmaus, Ephraim, Gaza, Jericho, Joppa, Lydda, and Rama.

(Works, vol. ii. p. 79.) See additional examples in Buxtorf's *Lexicon Chaldaicum, Talmudicum et Rabbinicum*, p. 434.

¹ Josephus, *Antiq.* book xviii. c. 3. § 2. and Mr. Whiston's note there. In another place (book xvii. c. 10. § 2.) after describing a popular tumult, he says, *A great number of these were Galileans and Idumeans.*

² Gilly's *Spirit of the Gospel*, or the *Four Evangelists elucidated*, p. 328.

³ *Antiq.* book xx. c. 5. § 1. *De Bell. Jud.* book ii. c. 1^o § 3.

4. The district of **PERÆA** comprised the six cantons of Abilene, Trachonitis, Ituræa, Gaulonitis, Batanæa, and Peræa, strictly so called, to which some geographers have added Decapolis.

(1) **ABILENE** was the most northern of these provinces, being situated between the mountains of Libanus and Anti-libanus, and deriving its name from the city Abila. It is supposed to have been within the borders of the tribe of Nepthali, although it was never subdued by them, and is one of the four tetrarchies mentioned by St. Luke. (iii. 1.) The evangelist's account is confirmed by the geographer Ptolemy, who states that Abila bore the name of Lysanias.

(2.) **TRACHONITIS** was bounded by the desert Arabia on the east, Batanæa on the west, Ituræa on the south, and the country of Damascus on the north. It abounded with rocks, which afforded shelter to numerous thieves and robbers.

(3.) **ITURÆA** antiently belonged to the half tribe of Manasseh, who settled on the east of Jordan: it stood to the east of Batanæa and to the south of Trachonitis. Of these two cantons Philip the son of Herod the Great was tetrarch at the time John the Baptist commenced his ministry. (Luke iii. 1.) It derived its name from Jetur the son of Ishmael (1 Chron. i. 31.), and was also called Auranitis from the city of Hauran. (Ezek. xlvii. 16. 18.) This region exhibits vestiges of its former fertility, and is most beautifully wooded and picturesque.¹

(4.) **GAULONITIS** was a tract on the east side of the lake of Gennesareth and the river Jordan, which derived its name from Gaulan or Golan the city of Og, king of Bashan. (Josh. xx. 8.) This canton is not mentioned in the New Testament.

(5.) **BATANÆA**, the antient kingdom of Bashan, was situated to the north-east of Gaulonitis: its limits are not easy to be defined. It was part of the territory given to Herod Antipas, and is not noticed in the New Testament.

(6.) **PERÆA**, in its restricted sense, includes the southern part of the country beyond Jordan, lying south of Ituræa, east of Judæa and Samaria; and was antiently possessed by the two tribes of Reuben and Gad. Its principal place was the strong fortress of Machærus, erected for the purpose of checking the predatory incursions of the Arabs. This fortress, though not specified by name in the New Testament, is memorable as the place where John the Baptist was put to death. (Matt. xiv. 3—12.)

(7.) The canton of **DECAPOLIS** (Matt. iv. 25. Mark v. 20. and vii. 31.), which derives its name from the ten cities it contained, is considered by Reland and other eminent authorities as part of the region of Peræa. Concerning its limits, and the names of its ten cities, geographers are by no means agreed; but, according to Jo-

¹ Buckingham's *Travels in Palestine*, pp. 408, 409. London, 1821. 4to. Mr. Burckhardt, who visited this region in the years 1810 and 1812, has described its present state, together with the various antiquities which still remain. See his *Travels in Syria and the Holy Land*, pp. 51—119. 211—310. London, 1822. 4to.

seplius (whose intimate knowledge of the country constitutes him an unexceptionable authority), it contained the cities of Damascus, Otopos, Philadelphia, Raphana, Scythopolis (the capital of the district), Gadara, Hippos, Dios, Pella, and Gerasa.

5. IDUMÆA. — This province was added by the Romans, on their conquest of Palestine. It comprised the extreme southern part of Judæa, together with some small part of Arabia. During the Babylonish captivity, being left destitute of inhabitants, or not sufficiently inhabited by its natives, it seems to have been seized by the neighbouring Idumæans; and though they were afterwards subjugated by the powerful arms of the Maccabees and Asmonean princes, and embraced Judaism, yet the tract of country, of which they had thus possessed themselves, continued to retain the appellation of Idumæa in the time of Christ, and indeed for a considerable subsequent period.

VIII. Of the whole country thus described, JERUSALEM was the metropolis during the reigns of David and Solomon: after the secession of the ten tribes, it was the capital of the kingdom of Judah, but during the time of Christ and until the subversion of the Jewish polity, it was the metropolis of Palestine.

1. Jerusalem is frequently styled in the Scriptures the *Holy City*, (Isa. xlviii. 2. Dan. ix. 24. Nehem. xi. 1. Matt. iv. 5. Rev. xi. 2.) because *the Lord chose it out of all the tribes of Israel to place his name there*, his temple and his worship (Deut. xii. 5. xiv. 23. xvi. 2. xxvi. 2.); and to be the centre of union in religion and government for all the tribes of the commonwealth of Israel. It is held in the highest veneration by Christians for the miraculous and important transactions which happened there, and also by the Mohammedans, who to this day never call it by any other appellation than *El-Kods*¹, or The Holy, sometimes adding the epithet *El-Sherif*, or The Noble. The original name of the city was *Salem*, or Peace (Gen. xiv. 18.): the import of Jerusalem is, the vision or inheritance of peace; and to this it is not improbable that our Saviour alluded in his beautiful and pathetic lamentation over the city. (Luke xix. 41.) It was also formerly called Jebus from one of the sons of Canaan. (Josh. xviii. 28.) After its capture by Joshua (Josh. x.) it was jointly inhabited both by Jews and Jebusites (Josh. xv. 63.) for about five hundred years, until the time of David; who having expelled the Jebusites, made it his residence (2 Sam. v. 6—9.), and erected a noble palace there, together with several other magnificent buildings, whence it is sometimes styled the *City of David*. (1 Chron. xi. 5.) By the prophet Isaiah (xxix. 1). Jerusalem is termed *Ariel*, or the Lion of God; but the reason of this name, and its meaning, as applied to Jerusalem, is very obscure and doubtful. It may possibly signify the strength of the place, by which the inhabitants were enabled to resist and overcome their enemies; in the same

¹ This is a contraction from *Medinet-el-Karess*, that is, the *Sacred City*. Capt. Light's Travels in Egypt, Nubia, &c. p. 177.

manner as the Persians term one of their cities *Shiráz*, or the *Deavouring Lion*. Being situated on the confines of the two tribes of Benjamin and Judah, Jerusalem sometimes formed a part of the one, and sometimes of the other; but, after Jehovah had appointed it to be the place of his habitation and temple, it was considered as the metropolis of the Jewish nation, and the *common property* of the children of Israel. On this account it was, that the houses were not let, and all strangers of the Jewish nation had the liberty of lodging there gratis, by right of hospitality. To this custom our Lord probably alludes in Matt. xxvi. 18. and the parallel passages.

2. The name of the whole mountain, on the several hills and hollows of which the city stood, was called *Moriah*, or Vision; because it was high land and could be seen afar off, especially from the south (Gen. xxii. 2—4.); but afterwards that name was appropriated to the most elevated part on which the temple was erected, and where Jehovah appeared to David. (2 Chron. iii. 1. 2 Sam. xxiv. 16. 17.) This mountain is a rocky limestone hill, steep of ascent on every side except the north; and is surrounded on the other sides by a group of hills, in the form of an amphitheatre (Psal. cxxv. 2.), which situation rendered it secure from the earthquakes that appear to have been frequent in the Holy Land (Psal. xli. 2, 3.), and have furnished the prophets with many elegant allusions. On the east, stands the *Mount of Olives*, fronting the temple, of which it commanded a noble prospect, (Matt. xxiv. 2, 3. Luke xix. 37—41.) as it does to this day of the whole city, over whose streets and walls the eye roves as if in the survey of a model. This mountain which is frequently noticed in the evangelical history, stretches from north to south, and is about a mile in length. The olive is still found growing in patches at the foot of this mountain, to which it gives its name. Its summit commands a view as far as the Dead Sea, and the mountains beyond Jordan. On the descent of this mountain our Saviour stood when he beheld the city and wept over it; on this mountain it was that he delivered his prediction concerning the downfall of Jerusalem (Luke xix. 41—44); and the army of Titus encamped upon the very spot where its destruction had been foretold.¹ Dr. Clarke discovered some Pagan remains on this mountain; and at its foot he visited an olive ground always noticed as the garden of Gethsemane. “This place,” says he, “is, not without reason, shewn as the scene of our Saviour’s agony the night before his crucifixion (Matt. xxvi. Mark xiv. Luke xxii. John xviii.), both from the circumstance of the name it still retains, and its situation with regard to the city.” Here he found a grove of olives of immense size covered with fruit, almost in a mature state.² Between

¹ Josephus, de Bell. Jud. lib. vi. c. 5.

² Dr. Clarke’s Travels, vol. iv. pp. 355, 365, 366. 8vo. edit. In 1818, however, the gardens of Gethsemane were of a miserable description, surrounded with a dry stone fence, and provided with a few olive trees, without either pot-herbs or vegetables of any kind. Richardson’s Travels along the Mediterranean and Parts adjacent, in 1816—17—18, vol. ii. p. 366. London, 1822, 8vo.

Olivet and the city lies the valley of Kedron, through which flows the brook of that name which is noticed in a subsequent page.

On the south side stood the *Mount of Corruption*, where Solomon, in his declining years, built temples to Moloch, Chemosh, and Ashtaroth (1 Kings xi. 7. 2 Kings xxiii. 13.): it was separated from the city by the narrow valley of Hinnom (Josh. xviii. 16. Jer. xix. 2.), where the Israelites burnt their children in the fire to Moloch (Jer. vii. 31. and xxxii. 35.): thence made the emblem of hell, *Gehenna*, or the place of the damned. (Matt. v. 22. xxiii. 33. Mark ix. 43.)

Towards the west, and without the walls of the city, agreeably to the law of Moses¹ (Levit. iv.), lay *Calvary* or *Golgotha*, that is, the place of a skull (Matt. xxvii. 33.), so called by some from its fancied resemblance to a skull, but more probably, either because criminals were executed there, or perhaps because this place contained sepulchral caverns for the dead.²

The southern quarter, originally "the city of David," built on *Mount Zion*³, Joséphus calls the *upper city*: and the house of Millo was what he calls the *upper market*. In process of time the upper city spread downwards into the winding hollow way, which he calls the valley of the cheesemongers (*Tyropæum*), and composed the lower city, by him termed⁴ *Acra*.

3. We have no particulars recorded concerning the nature of the fortifications of Jerusalem, previously to the time of Nehemiah; though such there undoubtedly must have been, from the importance and sanctity of the city, as the metropolis of the country, and the seat of the Jewish worship. In the account of the rebuilding of the wall, under the direction of that pious and patriotic governor, ten gates are distinctly enumerated, viz. three on the south, four on the east, and three on the western side of the wall.

The three gates on the *south* side were, 1. The *Sheep Gate* (Neh. iii. 1.), which was probably so called from the victims, intended for

¹ To this St. Paul delicately alludes in his epistle to the Hebrews (xiii. 12, 13.) where he says that Christ, as a sacrifice for sin, *suffered without the gate*; and when he exhorts the Hebrew Christians to *go forth unto him without the camp*, that is, out of Jerusalem, this city being regarded by the Jews as the camp of Israel.

² These caverns are described by Dr. Clarke, particularly one that strikingly coincides with all the circumstances attaching to the history of our Saviour's tomb. See his *Travels*, vol. iv. p. 327. *et seq.* 8vo. edit.

³ When Dr. Richardson visited this sacred spot in 1818, he found one part of Mount Zion supporting a crop of barley, another was undergoing the labour of the plough; and the soil turned up consisted of stone and lime mixed with earth, such as is usually met with in the foundations of ruined cities. "It is nearly a mile in circumference, is highest on the west side, and towards the east falls down in broad terraces on the upper part of the mountain, and narrow ones on the side, as it slopes down towards the brook Kedron. Each terrace is divided from the one above it by a low wall of dry stone, built of the ruins of this celebrated spot. The terraces near the bottom of the hill are still used as gardens, and are watered from the pool of Siloam. They belong chiefly to the small village of Siloa, immediately opposite. We have here another remarkable instance of the special fulfilment of prophecy: — *Therefore shall Zion for your sakes be plowed as a field, and Jerusalem shall become heaps.* (Micah, iii. 12.)" Dr. Richardson's *Travels along the Mediterranean*, &c. vol. ii. p. 348.

⁴ Dr. Hales's *Analysis of Chronology*, vol. i. pp. 425—429. Josephus de Bell. Jud. lib. v. c. 4.

sacrifice, being conducted through it to the second temple. Near this gate stood the towers of Meah and Hananeel. The Sheep Gate was also called the *Gate of Benjamin*.—2. The *Fish Gate* (Neh. iii. 3. xii. 39.), which was also called the *first gate*.—3. The *Old Gate*, also called the *Corner Gate*. (Neh. iii. 6. xii. 39. 2 Kings xiv. 13. Jer. xxxi. 38.)

The gates on the *eastern* side were, 1. The *Water Gate* (Neh. iii. 26.), near which the waters of Etam passed, after having been used in the temple service, in their way to the brook Kedron, into which they discharged themselves.—2. The *Horse Gate* (Neh. iii. 28. Jer. xxxi. 40.), which is supposed to have been so called, because horses went through it in order to be watered.—3. The *Prison Gate* (xii. 39.), probably so called from its vicinity to the prison.—4. The Gate *Miphkad*. (Neh. iii. 31.)

The gates on the *western* side were, 1. The *Valley Gate* (Neh. iii. 13.), also termed the *Gate of Ephraim*, above which stood the *Tower of Furnaces* (Neh. iii. 11. xii. 38.); and near it was the *Dragon Well* (Neh. ii. 13.), which may have derived its name from the representation of a dragon, out of whose mouth the stream flowed that issued from the well.—2. The *Dung Gate* (Neh. iii. 13.), which is supposed to have received its name from the filth of the beasts that were sacrificed, being carried from the temple through this gate.—3. The *Gate of the Fountain* (Neh. iii. 15.), had its name either from its proximity to the fountain of Gihon, or to the spot where the fountain of Siloam took its rise. We have no account of any gates being erected on the northern side.¹

Previously to the fatal war of the Jews with the Romans, we are informed by Josephus, that the city of Jerusalem was surrounded by three walls on such parts as were not encompassed with impassable vallies, where there was only one wall. The first wall began, on the north side, at the tower called Hippicus, whence it extended to the place called the *Xistus*, and to the council-house, and it terminated at the western cloister of the temple. But, proceeding westward, in a contrary direction, the historian says, that it began at the same place, and extended through a place called Bethso, to the gate of the Essenes, then taking a turn towards the south, it reached to the place called Ophlas, where it was joined to the eastern cloister of the temple. The *second* wall commenced at the gate Gennath, and encompassed only the northern quarter of the city, as far as the tower Antonia. The *third* wall began at the tower Hippicus, whence it reached as far as the north quarter of the city, passed by the tower Psephinus, till it came to the monument of Helena queen of Adiabene. Thence it passed by the sepulchres of the kings; and, taking a direction round the south-west corner, passed the Fuller's Monument, and joined the old wall at the valley of Kedron. This third wall was commenced by Agrippa, to defend the new part of the town; but he did not finish it from

¹ *Observationes Philologicae ac Geographicae*. Amstelredami, 1747. 8vo. pp. 21—29.

apprehension of incurring the displeasure of the emperor Claudius. His intention was to have erected it with stones, twenty cubits in length by ten cubits in breadth; so that no iron tools or engines could make any impression on them. What Agrippa could not accomplish, the Jews subsequently attempted: and, when Jerusalem was besieged by the Romans, this wall was twenty cubits high, above which were battlements of two cubits, and turrets of three cubits, making in all an altitude of twenty-five cubits. Numerous towers, constructed of solid masonry, were erected at certain distances: in the third wall, there were ninety; in the middle wall, there were forty; and in the old wall, sixty. The towers of Hippicus, Phasaelus, and Mariamne, erected by Herod the Great, and dedicated to the memory of his friend, his brother, and his wife, were pre-eminent for their height, their massive architecture, their beauty, and the conveniencies with which they were furnished. The circumference of Jerusalem, at the time Josephus wrote, was thirty-three furlongs, or nearly four miles and a half: and the wall of circumvallation, constructed by order of Titus, he states to have been thirty-nine furlongs, or four miles eight hundred and seventy-five paces. At present, a late traveller states that the circumference of Jerusalem cannot exceed *three miles*.¹

4. During the time of Jesus Christ, Jerusalem was adorned with numerous edifices, both sacred and civil, some of which are mentioned or alluded to. But its chief glory was the temple, described in a subsequent part of this volume; which magnificent structure occupied the northern and lower top of Sion, as we learn from the psalmist (xlviii. 2.) *Beautiful for situation, the joy (or delight) of the whole earth, is mount Sion. On her north side is the city of the great king.* Next to the temple in point of splendour, was the very superb palace of Herod, which is largely described by Josephus²; it afterwards became the residence of the Roman procurators, who for this purpose generally claimed the royal palaces in those provinces which were subject to kings.³ These dwellings of the Roman procurators in the provinces were called *Prætoria*⁴: Herod's palace therefore was Pilate's prætorium (Matt. xxvii. 27. John xviii. 28.); and in some part of this edifice was the armoury or barracks of the Roman soldiers that garrisoned Jerusalem⁵, whither Jesus was conducted and mocked by them. (Matt. xxvii. 27. Mark xv. 16.) In the front of this palace was the tribunal, where Pilate sat in a judicial capacity to hear and determine weighty causes; being a raised pavement of mosaic work (λιδωσρωτον), the evangelist informs us that in the Hebrew language it was on this account termed *Gabbatha* (John xix. 13.), i. e. an elevated place. In this tribunal the procurator Florus sat, A. D. 66.; and, in order to punish the

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¹ Jolliffe's Letters from Palestine, p. 103.

² Antiq. Jud. lib. xv. c. ix. § 3. De Bell. Jud. lib. i. c. xxii. § 1. et lib. v. c. iv. § 3.

³ Cicero contra Verrem, act. ii. lib. v. c. 12. (op. tom. iv. p. 96. ed. Bipont.)

⁴ Ibid. lib. v. c. 35. et 41. (tom. iv. pp. 125. 142.)

⁵ Compare Josephus, De Bell. Jud. lib. v. c. xv. § 5. c. xvii. § 8.

Jews for their seditious behaviour, issued orders for his soldiers to plunder the upper market-place in Jerusalem, and to put to death such Jews as they met with; which commands were executed with savage barbarity.¹

On a steep rock adjoining the north-west corner of the temple stood the *Tower of Antonia*, on the site of a citadel that had been erected by Antiochus Epiphanes² in order to annoy the Jews; and which, after being destroyed by them³, was rebuilt by the Maccean prince John Hyrcanus, B. C. 135.⁴ Herod the Great repaired it with great splendour, uniting in its interior all the conveniences of a magnificent palace, with ample accommodations for soldiers. This citadel (in which a Roman legion was always quartered) overlooked the two outer courts of the temple, and communicated with its cloisters by means of secret passages, through which the military could descend and quell any tumult that might arise during the great festivals. This was the guard to which Pilate alluded, as already noticed. (Matt. xxvii. 65.) The tower of Antonia was thus named by Herod, in honour of his friend Mark Antony: and this citadel is the castle into which St. Paul was conducted (Acts xxi. 34, 35.) and of which mention is made in Acts xxii. 24. As the temple was a fortress that guarded the whole city of Jerusalem, so the tower of Antonia was a fortress that entirely commanded the temple.⁵

Besides the preceding edifices, Josephus mentions a house or palace at the extremity of the upper city, which had been erected by the princes of the Asmonean family, from whom it was subsequently called the Asmonean Palace. It appears to have been the residence of the princes of the Herodian family, (after the Romans had reduced Judæa into a province of the empire) whenever they went up to Jerusalem. In this palace, Josephus mentions Berenice and Agrippa as residing⁶, and it is not improbable that it was the residence of Herod the tetrarch of Galilee when he went to keep the solemn festivals at that city; and that it was here that our Saviour was exposed to the wanton mockery of the soldiers, who had accompanied Herod thither, either as a guard to his person, or from ostentation. (Luke xxiii. 7—11.)

5. During the reigns of David and Solomon, Jerusalem was the metropolis of the land of Israel; but, after the defection of the ten tribes under Jeroboam, it was the capital of the kings of Judah, during whose government it underwent various revolutions. It was captured four times without being demolished, viz. by Shishak sovereign of Egypt (2 Chron. xii.), from whose ravages it never recovered its former splendour; by Antiochus Epiphanes, who treated the Jews with singular barbarity; by Pompey the Great, who rendered the Jews tributary to Rome; and by Herod, with the assist-

¹ Josephus, *De Bell. Jud.* lib. ii. c. xiv. § 8.

² *Ibid.* Ant. *Jud.* lib. xii. c. v. § 4.

³ *Ibid.* lib. xii. c. xi. § 4.

⁴ *De Bell. Jud.* lib. ii. c. 15. § 1.

⁵ *De Bell. Jud.* lib. ii. c. 15. § 8.

⁶ *De Bell. Jud.* lib. ii. c. 15. § 1.

ance of a Roman force under Sosius. It was first entirely destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, and again by the Emperor Titus, the repeated insurrections of the turbulent Jews having filled up the measure of their iniquities, and drawn down upon them the implacable vengeance of the Romans. Titus ineffectually endeavoured to save the temple: it was involved in the same ruin with the rest of the city, and, after it had been reduced to ashes, the foundations of that sacred edifice were ploughed up by the Roman soldiers. Thus literally was fulfilled the prediction of our Lord, that not one stone should be left upon another that should not be thrown down. (Matt. xxiv. 2.)¹ The Emperor Adrian erected a city on part of the former side of Jerusalem, which he called *Ælia Capitolina*: it was afterwards greatly enlarged and beautified by Constantine the Great, who restored its antient name. During that Emperor's reign the Jews made various efforts to rebuild their temple, which however were always frustrated: nor did better success attend the attempt made A. D. 363. by the apostate emperor Julian. An earthquake, a whirlwind, and a fiery eruption compelled the workmen to abandon their design.

From the destruction of Jerusalem by the Romans to the present time, that city has remained, for the most part, in a state of ruin and desolation; "and has never been under the government of the Jews themselves, but oppressed and broken down by a succession of foreign masters — the Romans, the Saracens, the Franks, the Mamelukes, and last by the Turks, to whom it is still subject. It is not therefore only in the history of Josephus, and in other antient writers, that we are to look for the accomplishment of our Lord's predictions: — we see them verified at this moment before our eyes, in the desolate state of the once celebrated city and temple of Jerusalem, and in the present condition of the Jewish people, not collected together into any one country, into one political society, and under one form of government, but dispersed over every region of the globe, and every where treated with contumely and scorn."²

6. The modern city of Jerusalem contains within its walls several of the hills, on which the antient city is supposed to have stood; but these are only perceptible by the ascent and descent of the streets. When seen from the Mount of Olives, on the other side of the valley of Jehoshaphat, it presents an inclined plane, descending from west to east. An embattled wall, fortified with towers and a Gothic castle, encompasses the city all round, excluding however part of Mount Sion, which it formerly inclosed. Notwithstanding its seemingly strong position, it is incapable of sustaining a severe assault, because, on account of the topography of the land, it has no means of preventing the approaches of an enemy; and,

¹ For a full view of the predictions of Jesus Christ concerning the destruction of Jerusalem and their literal fulfilment, see Vol. I. Appendix No. IV. Chap. II. Sect. III.

² Bp. Porteus's Lectures on the Gospel of Saint Matthew, vol. ii. p. 215.

on the other hand, it is commanded, at the distance of a gun-shot, by the Djebel Tor, or the Mount of Olives, from which it is seen to the best advantage.¹ Imposing, however, as the appearance of Jerusalem is, when viewed from that mountain, — and exhibiting a compactness of structure like that alluded to by the Psalmist², — the illusion vanishes on entering the town. No “streets of palaces and walks of state,” — no high-raised arches of triumph — no fountains to cool the air, or porticoes — not a single vestige meets the traveller, to announce its former military greatness or commercial opulence: but in the place of these, he finds himself encompassed by walls of rude masonry, the dull uniformity of which is only broken by the occasional protrusion of a small grated window. *From the daughter of Zion all her beauty is departed.* (Lam. i. 6.) The finest section of the city is that inhabited by the Armenians; in the other quarters, the streets are much narrower, being scarcely wide enough to admit three camels to stand abreast. In the western quarter and in the centre of Jerusalem, towards Calvary, the low and ill-built houses (which have flat terraces or domes on the top, but no chimneys or windows) stand very close together; but in the eastern part, along the brook Kedron, the eye perceives vacant spaces, and amongst the rest that which surrounds the mosque³ erected by the Khalif Omar, A. D. 637., on the site of the temple, and the nearly deserted spot where once stood the tower of Antonia and the second palace of Herod. The present population of Jerusalem is variously estimated, Capt. Light, who visited it in 1814, computed it at twelve thousand. Mr. Buckingham, who was there in 1816, from the best information he could procure states, that the *fixed residents* (more than one half of whom are Mohammedans) are about eight thousand: but the continual arrival and departure of strangers make the total number of *persons present* in the city from ten to fifteen thousand generally, according to the season of the year. The proportions which the numbers of persons of different sects bear to each other in this estimate, he found it difficult to ascertain. The Mohammedans are unquestionably the most numerous. Next, in point of numbers, are the Greek Christians, who are chiefly composed of the clergy, and of devotees. The Armenians follow next in order as to numbers, but their body is thought to exceed that of the Greeks in influence and in wealth. Of Europeans there are only the few monks of the *Convento della Terra Santa*, and the still fewer Latin pilgrims who occasionally visit them. The Copts, Abyssinians, Nestorians, &c. are scarcely perceptible in the crowd: and even the Jews are more

¹ Travels of Ali Bey, in Morocco, Egypt, Arabia, Syria, &c. between 1803 and 1807, vol. ii. p. 245.

² Jerusalem is builded as a city that is compact together. Psal. cxxii. 3.

³ In the Travels of Ali Bey, (vol. ii. pp. 214—227.) there is a minute description illustrated with three large plates, of this mosque, or rather group of mosques, erected at different periods of Islamism, and exhibiting the prevailing taste of the various ages when they were severally constructed. This traveller states that they form a very harmonious whole: the edifice is collectively termed, in Arabic, *El Haram*, or the Temple.

remarkable from the striking peculiarity of their features and dress, than from their numbers as contrasted with other bodies. Mr. Jolliffe, who visited Jerusalem in 1817, states that the highest estimate makes the total number amount to twenty-five thousand. Of these there are supposed to be

Mohammedans	-	-	-	-	-	-	13,000
Jews	-	-	-	-	-	-	from 3 to 4,000
Greeks	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,000
Roman Catholics (including European Catholics)	-	-	-	-	-	-	800
Armenians	-	-	-	-	-	-	400
Copts	-	-	-	-	-	-	50

Dr. Richardson, who was at Jerusalem in 1818, estimates the population at 20,000 persons, of whom 5000 are Mussulmans, 5000 Christians, and 10,000 Jews.

In 1824, the following computation was made by the Rev. Mr. Fisk, an Anglo-American Missionary in Palestine, viz:

Mussulmans	-	-	-	-	-	-	10,000
Jews	-	-	-	-	-	-	6,000
Greeks	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,000
Catholics	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,500
Armenians	-	-	-	-	-	-	500

Total population - - - 20,000¹

This is a very slender aggregate, compared with the flourishing population which the city once supported; but the numerous sieges it has undergone, and their consequent spoliations, have left no vestige of its original power. "Jerusalem, under the government of a Turkish aga, is still more unlike Jerusalem as it existed in the reign of Solomon, than Athens during the administration of Pericles, and Athens under the dominion of the chief of the black eunuchs. We have it upon judgment's record, that *before a marching army, a land has been as the garden of Eden, behind it a desolate wilderness.* (Joel ii. 3.) The present appearance of Judæa has embodied the awful warnings of the prophet in all their terrible reality."²

IX. As it would require a volume to give even an epitome of the history of the Jews, a brief enumeration of their principal historical epochs must terminate this chapter. They are as follow:—

	A. M.	B. C.
1. The Exode from Egypt	2513	1491
2. The Delivery of the Law	2514	1490

¹ Missionary Register for 1824. p. 503.

² Jolliffe's Letters from Palestine, written in 1817, Lond. 1820, 8vo. p. 102. The sketch of the modern state of Jerusalem, above given, has been drawn up, from a careful comparison of this intelligent writer's remarks, with the observations of M. Chateaubriand, made in 1806 (*Travels*, vol. ii. pp. 53, 83, 84, 179, 180,), of Ali Bey, made in 1803—1807 (*Travels*, vol. ii. pp. 240—245,), of Capt. Light, made in 1814. (*Travels in Egypt*, &c. pp. 178—187,), and of Mr. Buckingham, made in 1816. (*Travels in Palestine*, pp. 260—262,.) See also Dr. Richardson's *Travels along the Mediterranean*, &c. vol. ii. pp. 238—368.

	A. M.	B. C.
3. The Death of Moses; the entrance of the Israelites into the promised land, under Joshua - - - - -	2553	1451
4. Saul appointed and consecrated king - - - - -	2909	1095
5. The Accession of David to the throne - - - - -	2949	1055
6. The Reign of Solomon alone - - - - -	2990	1014
7. The Dedication of the Temple - - - - -	3001	1004
8. Accession of Rehoboam, and the secession of the ten tribes under Jeroboam - - - - -	3029	975
9. The Kingdom of Israel terminated by Shalmaneser, king of Assyria, after it had subsisted two hundred and fifty-four years	3283	751
10. The Destruction of the kingdom of Judah, after it had subsisted four hundred and sixty-eight years from the commencement of David's reign; and three hundred and eighty-eight years from the separation between Judah and the ten tribes	3416	588
11. The dedication of the second temple at Jerusalem - - - - -	3489	515
		A. D.
12. The Birth of Jesus Christ - - - - -	4004	1
13. The Crucifixion, death, resurrection, and ascension of Jesus Christ - - - - -	4036	33
14. The Siege and Capture of Jerusalem by Titus, and the utter subversion of the Jewish polity - - - - -	4073	70



Mount Tabor, as seen from the Plain of Esdraclon.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY OF THE HOLY LAND.

I. Climate. — **II. Seasons.** — 1. *Seed Time.* — 2. *Winter.* — 3. *The Cold Season, or Winter Solstice.* — 4. *Harvest.* — 5. *Summer.* — 6. *The Hot Season.* — *Heavy Dews.* — **III. Rivers, Lakes, Wells, and Fountains.** — **IV. Mountains.** — **V. Valleys.** — **VI. Caves.** — **VII. Plains.** — **VIII. Deserts.** — *Horrors and dangers of travelling in the Great Desert of Arabia.* — **IX. Productions of the Holy Land.** — *Vegetables, Animals, and Mines.* — *Testimonies of ancient and modern authors to its fertility and population.* — *Its present degraded and comparatively uncultivated*

state accounted for. — X. Calamities with which this country was visited. — 1. The Plague. — 2. Earthquakes. — 3. Whirlwinds. — 4. The Devastations of Locusts. — 5. Famine. — 6. Volcanoes. — 7. The Simoom or Pestilential Blast of the Desert.

I. THE surface of the Holy Land being diversified with mountains and plains, its *Climate* varies in different places; though in general it is more settled than in our more western countries. From Tripoli to Sidon, the country is much colder than the rest of the coast further to the north and to the south, and its seasons are less regular. The same remark applies to the mountainous parts of Judæa, where the vegetable productions are much later than on the sea-coast or in the vicinity of Gaza. From its lofty situation, the air of Saphet in Galilee is so fresh and cool, that the heats are scarcely felt there during the summer; though in the neighbouring country, particularly at the foot of Mount Tabor and in the plain of Jericho, the heat is intense.¹ Generally speaking, however, the atmosphere is mild: the summers are commonly dry, and extremely hot²: intensely hot days, however, are frequently succeeded by intensely cold nights³; and it is to these sudden vicissitudes, and their consequent effects on the human frame, that Jacob refers, when he says that *in the day the drought consumed him, and the frost by night*. (Gen. xxxi. 40.)

II. Six several seasons of the natural year are indicated in Gen. viii. 22. viz. *seed-time* and *harvest*, *cold* and *heat*, *summer*, and *winter*; and as agriculture constituted the principal employment of the Jews, we are informed by the rabbinical writers, that they adopted the same division of seasons, with reference to their rural work.⁴ These divisions also exist among the Arabs to this day.⁵ A brief statement of the natural phenomena occurring in these several seasons, will enable us to form a tolerably correct idea of the climate and weather of the Holy Land.

1. SEED-TIME, by the rabbins termed זֶרֶם (zerô), comprised the latter half of the Jewish month Tisri, the whole of Marchesvan, and the former half of Kisleu or Chisleu, that is, from the beginning of October to the beginning of December. During this season the weather is various, very often misty, cloudy, with mizzling or pouring rain. Towards the close of October or early in November, the former or early autumnal rains begin to fall; when they usually

¹ Harmer's Observations, vol. i. pp. 2—4. London, 1808.

² Of the intensity of the heat in Palestine, during the summer, some idea may be formed, when it is known that the mercury of Dr. E. D. Clarke's thermometer, in a subterraneous recess perfectly shaded (the scale being placed so as not to touch the rock), remained at one hundred degrees of Fahrenheit. Travels, vol. iv. p. 190. 8vo. edit.

³ The same vicissitudes of temperature exist to this day in Persia (Morier's Second Journey, p. 97. London, 1818, 4to), and also in Egypt. (Capt. Light's Travels, p. 20.; Dr. Richardson's Travels along the Mediterranean, &c., vol. i. p. p. 181, 182. London 1822. 8vo.) Harmer has collected several testimonies to the same effect, from the earlier travellers in the East. Observations on Scripture, vol. i. pp. 61, 65. London, 1808.

⁴ Bava Metsia, fol. 106. cited by Dr. Lightfoot, in his Hebrew and Talmudical Exercitationes on John iv. 35. (Works, vol. ii. p. 543.)

⁵ See Golius's Lexicon Arabicum, col. 394.

ploughed their lands, and sowed their wheat and barley, and gathered the latter grapes. The rains last for three or four days; they do not fall without intermission, but in frequent showers. The air at this season is frequently warm, sometimes even hot; but is much refreshed by cold in the night, which is so intense as to freeze the very heavy dews that fall. Towards the close it becomes cooler, and at the end of it snow begins to fall upon the mountains. The channels of the rivulets are sometimes dry, and even the large rivers do not contain much water. In the latter part of November the leaves lose their foliage. Towards the end of that month the more delicate light their fires (Jer. xxxvi. 22.) which they continue, almost to the month of April; while others pass the whole winter without fire.

2. WINTER, by the rabbins termed חורף (CHORAF), included the latter half of Chisleu, the whole of Tebeth, and the former part of Sebat, that is, from the beginning of December to the beginning of February. In the commencement of this season, snows rarely fall, except on the mountains, but they seldom continue a whole day; the ice is thin, and melts as soon as the sun ascends above the horizon. As the season advances, the north wind and the cold, especially on the lofty mountains, which are now covered with snow, is intensely severe, and sometimes even fatal: the cold is frequently so piercing, that persons born in our climate can scarcely endure it. The roads become slippery, and travelling becomes both laborious and dangerous, especially in the steep mountain-paths (Jer. xiii. 16. xxiii. 12.); and on this account our Lord, when predicting the calamities that were to attend the siege at Jerusalem, told his disciples to pray that their *flight might not be in the winter*. (Matt. xxiv. 20.) The cold however varies in severity according to the local situation of the country. On high mountains (as we have just remarked) it is extreme; but in the plain of Jericho it is scarcely felt, the winter there resembling spring; yet, in the vicinity of Jerusalem, the vicissitudes of a winter in Palestine were experienced by the crusaders at the close of the twelfth century, in all its horrors. Many persons of both sexes perished in consequence of want of food, the intenseness of the cold, and the heaviness of the rains, which kept them wet for four successive days. The ground was alternately deluged with rain, or encrusted with ice, or loaded with snow; the beasts of burthen were carried away by the sudden torrents, that descended (as they still do) from the mountains, and filled the rivers, or sank into the boggy ground. So vehement were the rains, storms of hail, and winds, as to tear up the stakes of the tents, and carry them to a distance. The extremity of the cold and wet killed the horses, and spoiled their provisions.¹

The hail-stones which fall during the severity of the winter season are very large, and sometimes fatal to man and beast. Such was the storm of hail that discomfited the Amorites (Josh. x. 10.); and

such also the *very grievous hail* that destroyed the cattle of the Egyptians. (Exod. ix. 18. 23, 24.) A similar hail-storm fell upon the British fleet in Marmorice bay, in Asiatic Turkey, in the year 1801¹, which affords a fine comment on that expression of the psalmist, *He casteth forth his ICE like morsels; who can stand before his cold?* (Psal. cxlvii. 17.) The snow, which falls in Judæa, is by the same elegant inspired writer compared to wool (Psal. cxlvii. 16.); and we are informed that in countries, which are at no great distance from Palestine, the snow falls in flakes as large as walnuts: but not being very hard or very compact, it does no injury to the traveller whom it covers.²

But, however severe the cold weather sometimes is in these countries, there are intervals even in the depth of winter when the sun shines and there is no wind, and when it is perfectly warm—sometimes almost hot—in the open air. At such seasons the poorer classes in the East enjoy the conversation of their friends, sauntering about in the air, and sitting under the walls of their dwellings; while the houses of the more opulent inhabitants, having porches or gateways, with benches on each side, the master of the family receives visitors there, and despatches his business—few persons (not even the nearest relations) having further admission except on extraordinary occasions. These circumstances materially illustrate a difficult passage in the prophet Ezekiel (xxxiii. 30.)—*Also, thou son of man, the children of thy people are still talking concerning thee³, by the WALLS AND IN THE DOORS of the houses, and speak one to another, every one to his brother, saying, Come, I pray you, and hear what is the word that cometh forth from the Lord.* It appears from Ezek. xxxiii. 21. that these things were transacted in the tenth month, corresponding with the close of our December or the commencement of January. The poorer people therefore sat under their walls for the benefit of the sun, while those in better circumstances sat in their porchways or gateways, to enjoy its genial rays.⁴

It appears therefore that one part of the winter is, by the inhabitants of the East, distinguished from the rest by the severity of the cold, which may be denominated the depth of their winter.

3. The COLD SEASON or Winter Solstice, by the rabbins termed

¹ “On the 8th of February commenced the most violent thunder and hail-storm ever remembered, and which continued two days and nights intermittingly. The hail, or rather the *ice-stones* were as big as large walnuts. The camps were deluged with a torrent of them two feet deep, which, pouring from the mountains, swept every thing before it. The scene of confusion on shore, by the horses breaking loose, and the men being unable to face the storm, or remain still in the freezing deluge, surpasses description. It is not in the power of language to convey an adequate idea of such a tempest.” Sir Robert Wilson’s *History of the British Expedition to Egypt*, vol. i. p. 8. 8vo. edit. Hail storms are so violent in some parts of Persia, as frequently to destroy the cattle in fields. Kinneir’s *Geographical Memoir*, p. 158.

² Harmer’s *Observations*, vol. i. pp. 45. note.

³ In our authorised version, the preposition π is rendered *against thee*, which is erroneous, as the context shews that the Jews were talking of or concerning the prophet, and so it is properly rendered in Psal. lxxxvii. 3. *Glorious things are spoken of thee, O city of God.*

⁴ Harmer’s *Observations*, vol. i. pp. 50—53.

קֹר (KOR), comprises the latter half of Sebat, the whole of Adar, and the former half of Nisan, from the beginning of February to the beginning of April. At the commencement of this season, the weather is cold, but it gradually becomes warm and even hot, particularly in the plain of Jericho. Thunder, lightning, and hail are frequent. Vegetable nature now revives; the almond tree blossoms, and the gardens assume a delightful appearance. Barley is ripe at Jericho, though but little wheat is in the ear. The *latter rains* sometimes begin to fall in the end of this season. 3174

4. The HARVEST, by the rabbins denominated קֶצֶר (KETSIR), includes the latter half of Nisan, the whole of Jyar (or Zif,) and the former half of Sivan, that is, from the beginning of April to the beginning of June. In the first fortnight of this season, the *latter rains* are frequent, but cease towards the end of April, when the sky is generally fair and serene. In the plain of Jericho the heat of the sun is excessive, though in other parts of Palestine the weather is most delightful; and on the sea-coast the heat is tempered by morning and evening breezes from the sea. As the harvest depends on the duration of the rainy season, the *early* or autumnal rains, and the *latter* or spring rains, are absolutely necessary to the support of vegetation, and were consequently objects greatly desired by the Israelites and Jews.¹ These rains, however, were always chilly, (Ezra x. 9. and Sol. Song ii. 11.), and often preceded by whirlwinds (2 Kings iii. 16, 17.) that raised such quantities of sand as to darken the sky, or, in the words of the sacred historian, to make the heavens black with clouds and wind. (1 Kings xviii. 45.) In Egypt the barley harvest precedes the summer. This may explain Jer. viii. 20. where the harvest is put first in the description. — *The harvest is past, the summer is ended, and we are not saved.*²

The rains descend in Palestine with great violence; and as whole villages in the East are constructed only with palm-branches, mud, and tiles baked in the sun, (perhaps corresponding to and explanatory of the untempered mortar noticed in Ezek. xiii. 11.) these rains not unfrequently dissolve the cement, such as it is, and the houses fall to the ground. To these effects our Lord probably alludes in Matt. vii. 25—27. Very small clouds are likewise the forerunners of violent storms and hurricanes in the east as well as in the west: they rise like a man's hand, (1 Kings xviii. 44.) until the whole sky becomes black with rain, which descends in torrents, that rush down the steep hills, and sweep every thing before them.³ In our

¹ The following are a few among the many allusions in the Scripture to the importance of the early and latter rains, and the earnestness with which they were desired. Deut. i. 14. Job. xxix. 23. Prov. xvi. 15. Jer. iii. 3. v. 24. Hos. vi. 3. Joel ii. 23. Eccl. x. 1.

² Jowett's Christian Researches in the Mediterranean, &c. p. 144. London, 1822. 8vo.

A similar phenomenon is noticed by Homer (Iliad, lib. iv. 275—278.), and also at places in Thessaly. Mr. Bruce, speaking of the phenomena attending the inundations of the Nile, says: — Every morning, "about nine, a small cloud, not above four miles in the east, whirling violently round, as if upon an axis; but, arrived at the Nile, it first abates its motion, then loses its form, and extends itself greatly, and seems to call up vapours from all opposite quarters." These clouds having attained

Lord's time, this phenomenon seems to have become a certain prognostic of wet weather. *He said to the people, When ye see THE cloud (THN Νεφέλην)¹ rise out of the west, straightway ye say, There cometh a shower; AND SO IT IS.* (Luke xii. 54.)

5. The SUMMER, by the Rabbins termed קייץ (KYITS), comprehends the latter half of Sivan, the whole of Thammuz, and the former half of Ab, that is, from the beginning of June to the beginning of August. The heat of the weather increases, and the nights are so warm that the inhabitants sleep on their house tops in the open air.

6. The HOT SEASON, by the Rabbins called חום (CHUM), or the great heat, includes the latter half of Ab, the whole of Elul, and the former half of Tisri, that is, from the beginning of August to the beginning of October. During the chief part of this season the heat is intense, though less so at Jerusalem than in the plain of Jericho: there is no cold, not even in the night, so that travellers pass whole nights in the open air without inconvenience. Lebanon is for the most part free from snow, except in the caverns and defiles where the sun cannot penetrate. During the hot season, it is not uncommon in the East Indies for persons to die suddenly, in consequence of the extreme heat of the solar rays (whence the necessity of being carried in a palanquin). This is now commonly termed a *coup-de-soleil*, or stroke of the sun. The son of the woman of Shunem appears to have died in consequence of a *coup-de-soleil* (2 Kings iv. 19, 20.)²; and to this fatal effect of the solar heat the psalmist alludes, as he also does to some deadly influence of the lunar rays (Psal. cxxi. 6.), though it is difficult to say in what that influence consists.³

From the time of harvest, that is, from the middle of April to the middle of September, it neither rains nor thunders. (Prov. xxvi. 1. 1 Sam. xii. 17.) During the latter part of April, or about the middle of the harvest, the *morning cloud* is seen early in the morning, which disappears as the sun ascends above the horizon

nearly the same height, rush against each other with great violence, and put me always in mind of Elisha foretelling rain on Mount Carmel." *Travels*, vol. v. p. 336. 8vo.

¹ The article here, is unquestionably demonstrative. See Bp. Middleton's *Doctrine of the Greek Article*, p. 327.

² Egmont and Heyman (who travelled in Palestine in the beginning of the eighteenth century,) found the air about Jericho extremely hot, and say that it destroyed several persons the year before they were there. The army of King Baldwin IV. suffered considerably from this circumstance near Tiberias. The heat at the time was so unusually great, that as many died by that as by the sword. After the battle, in their return to their former encampment, a certain ecclesiastic, of some distinction in the church and in the army, not being able to bear the vehemence of the heat, was carried in a litter, but expired under Mount Tabor. — *Harmer's Observations*, vol. i. p. 4.

³ The Psalmist's words are — *The sun shall not smite thee by day, nor the moon by night*: from which last words it is manifest that the lunar rays did produce some bad effects. Perhaps the following fact may serve to elucidate this passage: — In Bengal the moonbeams have a pernicious influence. Meat hung up, if exposed to moonlight, will not take the salt, but taints and spoils speedily: whereas the same kind of meat, if kept from the moonlight, will take salt, and keep good for some time. Extract of a letter from India, in the *Christian Observer* for 1808, p. 754.

(Hos. vi. 4. xiii. 3.) These light fleecy clouds are without water (*νεφελαι ανυδροι*); and to them the apostle Jude (verse 12.) compares the false teachers, who even then began to contaminate the church of Christ. In Deut. xxxii. 2. the doctrine of Jehovah is compared to the rain, and clouds are the instruments by which rain is distilled upon the earth. In arid or parched countries, the very appearance of a cloud is delightful, because it is a token of refreshing showers; but when sudden winds arise, and disperse these clouds, the hope of the husbandman and shepherd is cut off. The false teachers alluded to, are represented as *clouds*; they have the *form* and *office* of teachers of righteousness, and from such appearances pure doctrine may naturally be expected. But these are *clouds without water*; they distil no refreshing showers, because they contain none; and they are *carried about* by their passion, as those light and fleecy clouds in question are carried by the winds.¹

From the Jewish month Sivan, through the entire months of Tammuz, Ab, and the former part of Elul, corresponding with our months of May, June, July, and August, not a single cloud is to be seen; but during the night, the earth is moistened by a copious dew, which in the sacred volume is frequently made a symbol of the divine goodness. (Compare Gen. xxvii. 28. and xlix. 25. where the *blessing from above* is equivalent with dew, Deut. xxxii. 2. xxxiii. 13. Job xxix. 19. Mic. v. 7.) In Arabia Petrea the dews are so heavy, as to wet to the skin those who are exposed to them: but as soon as the sun arises, and the atmosphere becomes a little warmed, the mists are quickly dispersed, and the abundant moisture, which the dews had communicated to the sands, is entirely evaporated. What a forcible description is this of the transiently good impressions, felt by many, to which the prophet Hosea alludes! (vi. 4.) Other references to the refreshing nature of the dews of Palestine, occur in Psal. cxxxiii. 3. and Hos. xiv. 5.² These dews fall, as in other countries, very fast as well as very suddenly, upon every blade of grass and every spot of earth: whence an active and expeditious soldiery is in 2 Sam. xvii. 12. by a beautiful figure, compared to dew. But, however copious the dews are, they nourish only the more robust or hardy plants; and as the season of heat advances, the grass withers, the flowers fade, every green herb is dried up by the roots and dies, unless watered by the rivulets or by the labour of man.³ To this appearance of the fields, during an

¹ Dr. A. Clarke, on Jude 12.

² Shaw's Travels, vol. ii. p. 325. The very heavy dews which fall in the Holy Land, are noticed by almost every one who has travelled in that country. We shall adduce the testimonies of two of the most eminent. Maundrell, travelling near Mount Hermon, in the year 1697, says: — "We were instructed by experience, what the Psalmist means by the dew of Hermon (Psal. cxxxiii. 3.), our tents being as wet with it, as if it had rained all night." (Travels from Aleppo to Jerusalem, p. 77.) Dr. E. D. Clarke when on his journey from Aboukir to Rosetta, in 1801, says: — "We had a tent allotted to us for the night; it was double lined; yet so copious are the dews of Egypt" (the climate of which country is similar to that of the Holy Land,) "after sunset, that the water ran copiously down the tent-pole." (Travels, vol. iii. p. 365. 8vo.)

³ Harmer's Observations, vol. i. p. 6.

eastern summer, the royal psalmist alludes. (Psal. xxxii. 4.) If, at this season, a single spark falls upon the grass, a conflagration immediately ensues, especially if there should be any briars or thorns, low shrubs, or woods contiguous. (Psal. lxxxiii. 14. Isa. ix. 18. x. 17, 18. Jer. xxi. 14. Compare also Exod. xxii. 6. and Joel i. 19, 20.) The face of the country becomes entirely changed; the fields, so lately clothed with the richest verdure and adorned with the loveliest flowers, are converted into a brown and arid wilderness; the fountains and rivulets are dried up; and the soil becomes so hard as to exhibit large fissures or clefts. These effects are accelerated if the east wind blow for a few days; which, being usually dry and producing a blight, becomes fatal to the corn and vines (Job xv. 2. Gen. xli. 6. 23. Ezek. xvii. 10. xix. 12. Hos. xiii. 15. Jonah iv. 8. Psal. ciii. 15, 16.); and is particularly dangerous to navigators in the Mediterranean Sea. This is alluded to in Psal. xlviii. 7., and Ezek. xxvii. 26. The people of the East generally term every wind an east wind, that blows between the east and north and the east and south. The Euroclydon, which caused the wreck of the vessel in which Paul was sailing to Rome, was one of these tempestuous east winds, *αεμος τυφωνικος*, that drove every thing before it. (Acts xxvii. 14.) Such winds are common in the Mediterranean to this day, where they are called *Levanters*, the term *Levant* meaning that country which lies at the eastern extremity of that sea.¹

III. In consequence of the paucity of showers in the East, water is an article of great importance to the inhabitants. Hence, in Lot's estimation, it was a principal recommendation of the plain of Jordan that it was *well watered every where*; (Gen. xiii. 10.) and the same advantage continued in later ages to be enjoyed by the Israelites, whose country was intersected by numerous brooks and streams; whence it is not more emphatically than beautifully described as a *land of brooks of water, of fountains and depths, that spring out of vallies and hills*. And the same preference is given to this day by the Eelauts (a Tartar tribe occupying a district in the northern part of the Persian empire), who carry their flocks to the highest parts of the mountains, where the blessings of pasturage and of good water are to be found in abundance. The knowledge of this circumstance will perhaps impart new force to the promises made to the Gentiles by the evangelical prophet. *Their pastures shall be in all high places, they shall not hunger nor thirst; neither shall the sun or heat smite them; for he that hath mercy on them shall lead them, even by the springs of water shall he guide them*. (Isa. xlix. —11.)² See also Rev. vii. 16, 17.

Although *Rivers* are frequently mentioned in the sacred writings, yet, strictly speaking, the only river in the Holy Land is the Jordan, which is sometimes designated in the Scripture as *the river*

¹ Shaw's Travels in Barbary, &c. vol. ii. pp. 127—133.

² Morier's Second Journey through Persia, p. 121.

without any addition; as also is the Nile (Gen. xli. 1. Exod. i. 22. ii. 5. iv. 9. vii. 18. and viii. 3. 9. 11.), and, occasionally, the Euphrates (as in Jer. ii. 18.); in those cases, the tenor of the discourse must determine which is the river actually intended by the sacred writers. The name of river is also given to inconsiderable streams and rivulets, as to the Kishon (Judges iv. 7. and v. 21.) and the Arnon. (Deut. iii. 16.)¹

The principal river which waters Palestine is the JORDAN or *Yar-Dan*, i. e. the river of Dan, so called because it takes its rise in the vicinity of the little city of Dan. Its true source is in the lake Phiala near Caesarea Philippi, at the foot of Antilibanus, whence it passes under ground, and, emerging to the light from a cave in the vicinity of Paneas, it flows due south through the centre of the country, intersecting the lake Merom and the sea or lake of Galilee, and (it is said) without mingling with its waters; and it loses itself in the lake Asphaltites or the Dead Sea, into which it rolls a considerable volume of deep water, with such rapidity as to prevent a strong, active, and expert swimmer from swimming across it. The course of the Jordan is about one hundred miles; its breadth and depth are various. Dr. Shaw computed it to be about thirty yards broad, and three yards or nine feet in depth; and states that it discharges daily into the Dead Sea, about 6,090,000 tons of water.² Viscount Chateaubriand (who travelled nearly a century after him) found the Jordan to be six or seven feet deep close to the shore, and about fifty paces in breadth. The late Count Volney asserts it to be scarcely sixty paces wide at its embouchure. Messrs. Banks and Buckingham, who crossed it in January, 1816, pretty nearly at the same ford over which the Israelites passed on their first entering the promised land, found the stream extremely rapid; and as it flowed at that part over a bed of pebbles, its otherwise turbid waters were tolerably clear, as well as pure and sweet to the taste.³

Antiently, the Jordan overflowed its banks about the time of barley harvest (Josh. iii. 15. iv. 18. 1 Chron. xii. 15. Jer. xlix. 19.), or the feast of the passover; when, the snows being dissolved on the mountains, the torrents discharged themselves into its channel with great impetuosity. When visited by Mr. Maundrell at the beginning of the last century, he could discern no sign or probability of such inundations, though so late as the 30th of March; and so far was the river from overflowing, that it ran almost two yards below the brink of its channel. It may be said to have two banks, — the first that of the river in its natural state; the second, that of its overflowings. After descending the outermost bank, the traveller proceeds about a furlong upon a level strand, before he comes to the immediate bank of the river. This second bank is now (as it antiently was) so beset with bushes, reeds, tamarisks, willows,

¹ In a few instances, the sea is called a river, as in Hab. iii. 8. where the Red Sea is intended.

² Shaw's Travels, vol. ii. pp. 156, 157.

³ Buckingham's Travels, p. 315.

oleanders, and other shrubs and trees, which form an asylum for various wild animals, that no water is perceptible until the traveller has made his way through them.¹ In this thicket, several kinds of wild beasts used formerly to conceal themselves, until the swelling of the river drove them from their coverts. To this fact the prophet Jeremiah alludes, when he compares the impatience of Edom and Babylon under the divine judgments, to the *coming up of a lion from the swellings of Jordan*. (Jer. xlix. 19.) On the level strand above noticed, it probably was, that John the Baptist stood, and pointed to the stones of which it was composed, when he exclaimed, *I say unto you, that God is able of these stones to raise up children unto Abraham*: and turning to the second bank, which was overgrown with various shrubs and trees that had been suffered to grow wild for ages, he added, *and now also the axe is laid unto the root of the trees: therefore every tree, which bringeth not forth good fruit, is hewn down, and cast into the fire*. (Matt. iii. 9, 10.) The passage of this deep and rapid river by the Israelites, at the most unfavourable season, when augmented by the dissolution of the winter snows, was more manifestly miraculous, if possible, than that of the Red Sea; because here was no natural agency whatever employed; no mighty winds to sweep a passage as in the former case; no reflux in the tide on which minute philosophers might fasten to depreciate the miracle. It seems, therefore, to have been providentially designed, to silence cavils respecting the former: it was done at noon-day, in the presence of the neighbouring inhabitants; and it struck terror into the kings of the Amorites and Canaanites westward of the river, *whose hearts melted, neither was there any spirit in them any more, because of the children of Israel*. (Josh. v. 1.)

The other remarkable streams or rivulets of Palestine are the following: 1. The *Arnon*, which descends from the mountains of the same name, and discharges itself into the Dead Sea: — 2. The *Sihor* (the Belus of antient geographers, at present called the Kardamah) has its source about four miles to the east of the heads of the river Kishon. It waters the plains of Acre and Esdraelon, and falls into the sea at the gulph of Keilah²: — 3. The brook *Jabbok* takes its rise in the same mountains, and falls into the river Jordan. It is a rapid stream, flowing over a rocky bed; its waters are clear, and agreeable to the taste, and its banks are very thickly wooded with oleander and plane trees, wild olives, wild almonds, and numerous other trees. By the Arabs it is now termed *Nahr-el-Zerkah*, or the river of Zerkah, from a neighbouring station or village of that name.³ — 4. The *Kanah*, or *Brook of Reeds*, springs from the

¹ Maundrell's Journey, p. 126. Dr. Macmichael's Travels from Moscow to Constantinople, in the years 1817, 1818, p. 191. (Lond. 1819. 4to.) The Jordan is annually frequented by many thousand pilgrims, chiefly of the Greek church, under the protection of the Moosillim, or Turkish governor of Jerusalem, and a strong military escort. Ibid. pp. 191, 192. Richardson's Travels, vol. ii. p. 387.

² Shaw's Travels, vol. ii. p. 33.

³ Buckingham's Travels, p. 325.

mountains of Judah, but only flows during the winter, and it falls into the Mediterranean Sea near Cæsarea: it formerly separated the tribe of Ephraim from that of Manasseh. (Josh. xvii. 8, 9.) — 5. The brook *Besor* (1 Sam. xxx. 9.) falls into the same sea between Gaza and Rhinocorura. — 6. The *Kishon* issues from the mountains of Carmel, at the foot of which it forms two streams; one flows eastward into the sea of Galilee, and the other, taking a westerly course through the plain of Jezreel or Esdraelon, discharges itself into the Mediterranean Sea. This is the stream noticed in 1 Kings xviii. 40. — 7. *Kedron*, *Kidron*, or *Cedron*, as it is variously termed (2 Sam. xv. 23. 1 Kings xv. 13. 2 Kings xxiii. 6. 12. 2 Chron. xxix. 16. Jer. xxxi. 40. John xviii. 1.), runs in the valley of Jehoshaphat, eastward of Jerusalem, between that city and the mount of Olives; except during the winter, or after heavy rains, its channel is generally dry, but, when swollen by torrents, it flows with great impetuosity¹, and, like other brooks in cities, it is contaminated with the filth, of which it is the receptacle and Common Sewer. As no mention is made of bridges in Palestine, it is probable that the inhabitants forded the rivers and brooks wherever it was practicable, (in the same manner as persons of both sexes do to this day in Bengal,) which is alluded to, in Isa. xlvii. 2.

Of the LAKES mentioned in the Scriptures, two are particularly worthy of notice; that of *Galilee* or *Gennesareth*, and the *Lake of Sodom*, both of which are termed *seas*², agreeably to the Hebrew phraseology, which gives the name of sea to any large body of water.

1. The *Sea of Galilee* (so called from its situation on the eastern borders of that division of Palestine), through which the Jordan flows, was antiently called the *Sea of Chinnereth* (Numb. xxxiv. 11.) or Cinneroth (Josh. xii. 3.), from its vicinity to the town of that name; afterwards Genesar (1 Mac. xi. 67.), and in the time of Jesus Christ *Genesareth* or *Gennesareth* (Luke v. 1.), from the neighbouring land of the same name (Matt. xiv. 34. Mark vi. 53.); and also the *Sea of Tiberias* (John vi. 1. xxi. 1.), from the contiguous city of Tiberias. This immense lake, almost equal in the grandeur of its appearance to that of Geneva, spreads its transparent waters over all the lower territory, extending from the north-east to the south-west. Its northern coast is said to be entirely covered with basalt, lava, and other volcanic productions.³ The waters of the northern part of this lake abound with fish: this circumstance marks the propriety of our Lord's parable of the net cast into the sea (Matt. xiii. 47, 48.), which was delivered by him from a vessel near the shore.

¹ In like manner the rivers of Cyprus (which island lies to the north-west of the Holy Land) are dry during the summer months, and are swollen into torrents by sudden rains. Dr. Clarke's Travels, vol. iv. p. 75.

² This appellation is retained by the modern inhabitants, who reside in its vicinity, "who, like the earliest ones, call their water a sea, and reckon it and the Dead Sea to the south of them to be the two largest known except the great ocean." Buckingham's Travels, p. 47.

³ Travels of Ali Bey, vol. ii. p. 260.

Pliny states this lake to be sixteen miles in length by six miles' in breadth.

Josephus, whose intimate knowledge of his country gives his descriptions a high claim to attention, says that "its breadth is forty furlongs, and its length one hundred and forty. Its waters are sweet and very agreeable for drinking, for they are finer than the thick waters of other fens. The lake is also pure, and on every side ends directly at the shores, and at the sand: it is also of a temperate nature, when drawn up, and softer than river or fountain water: and it is so cold, that the people of the place cannot warm it by setting it in the sun, in the hottest season of the year. There are several kinds of fish in it, different both to the taste and sight from those elsewhere. It is divided into two parts by the river Jordan."¹

The fidelity of this description of the Jewish historian is attested by two learned and acute modern travellers. Mr. Buckingham, who beheld it in 1816, observes that "all these features are drawn with an accuracy that could only have been attained by one resident in the country. The size is still nearly the same, the borders of the lake still end at the beach or the sands, at the feet of the mountains which environ it. Its waters are still as sweet and temperate as ever, and the lake abounds with great numbers of fish of various sizes and kinds. The appearance of the lake as seen from Capernaum," Mr. Buckingham states, "is still grand; its greatest length runs nearly north and south from twelve to fifteen miles; and its breadth seems to be, in general, from six to nine miles. The barren aspect of the mountains on each side and the total absence of wood, give, however, a cast of dulness to the picture; and this is increased to melancholy by the dead calm of its waters and the silence which reigns throughout its whole extent, where not a boat or vessel of any kind is to be found."²

Dr. Clarke, by whom this lake was visited a few years before Mr. Buckingham's arrival, describes it as longer and finer than our Cumberland and Westmorland lakes, although it yields in majesty to the stupendous features of Loch Lomond in Scotland: like our Windermere, the lake of Gennesareth is often greatly agitated by winds. (Matt. viii. 23.—27.) A strong current marks the passage of the Jordan through the middle of this lake; and when this is opposed by contrary winds, which blow here with the force of a hurricane from the south-east, sweeping into the lake from the mountains, a boisterous sea is instantly raised: this the small vessels, of the country are ill qualified to resist. "The wind," says he "rendered its surface rough, and called to mind the situation of our Saviour's disciples; when, in one of the small vessels, which traverse these waters, they were tossed in a storm, and saw Jesus in the

¹ Josephus de Bell. Jud. lib. iii. c. 10. § 7.

² Buckingham's Travels, pp. 470, 471.

fourth watch of the night walking to them upon the waves." (Matt. xiv. 24—26.) These agitations, however, do not last for any length of time.—Its broad and extended surface, covering the bottom of a profound valley, environed by lofty and precipitous eminences, (excepting only the narrow entrance and outlets at the Jordan at each extremity) added to the impression of a certain reverential awe under which every Christian pilgrim approaches it, give it a character of dignity unparalleled by any similar scenery.¹ When not agitated by tempests, the water is stated to be as clear as the purest crystal, sweet, cool, and most refreshing to the taste.

2. The *Lake or Sea of Sodom*, or the *Dead Sea* has been celebrated not only by the sacred writers, but also by Josephus, and several profane authors.² It was antiently called in the Scriptures the *Sea of the Plain* (Deut. iii. 17. iv. 49.), being situated in a valley, with a plain lying to the south of it, where once flourished the cities of Sodom and Gomorrah, with the other cities of the plain;—the *Salt Sea* (Deut. iii. 17. Josh. xv. 5.) from the extremely saline, and bitter, taste of its waters;—the *Salt Sea eastward* (Numb. xxxiv. 3.)—and the *East Sea* (Ezek. xlvii. 18. Joel. ii. 20.), from its situation relatively to Judaea. By Josephus and other writers it is called the *Lake Asphaltites*, from the abundance of bitumen found in it; and by Jerome, the *Dead Sea*, that is, the Bituminous Lake, from antient traditions, erroneously though generally received, that no living creature can exist in its stagnant and hydro-sulphuretted waters, which are in the highest degree salt, bitter, and nauseous, and of such a degree of specific gravity as will enable a man to float on their surface without motion.³ The acrid saltiness of its waters is much greater than that of the sea; and the land, which surrounds this lake, being equally impregnated with that saltiness, refuses to produce plants. To this Moses alludes in Deut. xxix. 23. The air itself which is by evaporation loaded with it, and which is impregnated with the sulphureous and bituminous vapours, is fatal

¹ Dr. Clarke's Travels, vol. iv. pp. 209, 210. 225. Buckingham's Travels, pp. 468. 471.

² Josephus de Bell. Jud. lib. iv. c. 8. § 4.; Pliny, Hist. Nat. lib. v. c. xvi.; Tacitus, Hist. lib. v. c. vi.; Justin. lib. xxxvi. c. iii.; Strabo, lib. xvi. p. 1087, 1088. edit. Oxon.

³ Quarterly Journal of Science, Literature, and the Arts, vol. viii. p. 164. An analysis of the water of the Dead Sea (a phial of which had been brought to England by Mr. Gordon of Clunie, at the request of the late Sir Joseph Banks), conducted by Dr. Marcet, gave the following results:—"This water is perfectly transparent, and does not deposit any crystals on standing in close vessels.—Its taste is peculiarly bitter, saline, and pungent.—Solutions of silver produce from it a very copious precipitate shewing the presence of marine acid.—Oxalic acid instantly discovers lime in the water.—The lime being separated, both caustic and carbonated alkalies readily throw down a magnesian precipitate.—Solutions of barytes produce a cloud, shewing the existence of sulphuric acid.—No alumine can be discovered in the water by the delicate test of succinic acid combined with ammonia.—A small quantity of pulverised sea salt being added to a few drops of the water, cold and undiluted, the salt was readily dissolved with the assistance of gentle trituration, shewing that the Dead Sea is not saturated with common salt.—None of the coloured infusions commonly used to ascertain the prevalence of an acid or an alkali, such as litmus, violet, and turmeric, were in the least altered by the water."

Dr. Marcet analysed the water by two different processes, the results of which coincided

to vegetation; hence arises the *deadly* aspect which reigns around the lake.¹ Here formerly stood the cities of Sodom and Gomorrah, which, with three other cities of the plain, were consumed by fire from heaven; to this destruction there are numerous allusions in the Scriptures, as displaying most signally the certainty and suddenness of the divine anger which sooner or later overtakes the impenitently wicked. Viewing this sea from the spot where the Jordan discharges its waters into it, this body of water takes a southeasterly direction visible for ten or fifteen miles, when it disappears in a curve towards the east. Its surface is generally unruffled, from the hollow of the basin in which it lies, scarcely admitting the free passage necessary for a strong breeze; it is, however, for the same reason, subject to whirlwinds or squalls of short duration.² The water looks remarkably clear and pure; but, on being tasted, it proves to be nauseous and bitter in the extreme. The mountains on each side are apparently separated by a distance of eight miles: but the expanse of water at this point has been supposed not to exceed five or six. As the Dead Sea advances towards the south, it evidently increases in breadth.³ Pliny states the total length to be one hundred miles, and its greatest breadth twenty-five. But modern travellers who appear to have ascertained its dimensions with

very nearly; the last of which, being in his judgment the most accurate, is subjoined: On summing up the contents of 150 grains of the water, they appeared to be as follow:

			Salts.	Acid.
Muriat of lime	-	-	5,88 grains	3,89 grains.
Muriat of magnesia	-	-	15,37	8,61
Muriat of soda	-	-	15,54	7,15
Selenite	-	-	0,08	---
			36,87	18,65

And consequently the proportions of these salts in 100 grains of the water would be:

				Grains.
Muriat of lime	-	-	-	3,920
Muriat of magnesia	-	-	-	10,246
Muriat of soda	-	-	-	10,360
Sulphate of lime	-	-	-	0,054
				<hr/> 24,580 <hr/>

Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, for 1807, partii. pp. 298.—312. Another analysis, made by the eminent French chemist, M. Gay-Lussac in 1819, gave nearly similar results. (See Quarterly Journal of Science, &c. vol. viii. p. 165.) "Hence it appears that the Dead Sea water now contains about *one-fourth* of its weight of salt supposed in a state of perfect desiccation; or if they be desiccated at the temperature of 180° on Fahrenheit's scale, they will amount to *forty-one per cent.* of the water. If any person wish for a stronger confirmation of the Scripture account of the origin of the Dead Sea than this furnishes, we can only pity the miserable state of incredulity to which he is reduced, and commit him to the influences of that power which can cause the 'wilderness to blossom as the rose,' and from 'stones raise up children unto Abraham.'" Eclectic Review for 1809, vol. v. part i. p. 134.

¹ Volney's Travels in Egypt and Syria, vol. i. p. 288. 8vo. 3d edit.; Turner's Tour in the Levant, vol. ii. p. 227.

² Buckingham's Travels in Palestine, p. 293.

³ Jolliffe's Letters from Palestine, p. 118.

accuracy, have estimated its length to be about seventy-two English miles, and its greatest breadth to be nearly nineteen. A profound silence, awful as death, hangs over the lake: and "its desolate though majestic features are well suited to the tales related concerning it by the inhabitants of the country, who all speak of it with terror."¹

3. The *Great Sea*, mentioned in Numb. xxxiv. 6. and elsewhere in the Sacred Volume, is the Mediterranean Sea, so called by way of eminence: and the Red Sea, so often noticed, is now known by the appellation of the Arabian Gulph.²

Besides the preceding rivers and lakes, the Scriptures mention several *Fountains* and *Wells*. In a country where these are of rare occurrence, it is no wonder that they should antiently have given rise to strife and contention.³ (Gen. xxi. 25. xxvi. 20.) The most remarkable of these fountains and wells are the *Fountain* or *Pool* of *Siloam* and *Jacob's Well*.

1. *Siloam* was a fountain under the walls of Jerusalem, east, between the city and the brook Kedron: it is supposed to be the same as the fountain En-Rogel, or the Fuller's Fountain. (Josh. xv. 7. and xviii. 16. 2 Sam. xvii. 17. and 1 Kings i. 9.) The spring issues from a rock, and runs in a silent stream, according to the testimony of Jeremiah. It has a kind of ebb and flood, sometimes discharging its current like the fountain of Vaucluse; at others, retaining and scarcely suffering it to run at all. The pool or rather the two pools of the same name are quite close to the spring. They are still used for washing linen as formerly. The water of the spring is brackish, and has a very disagreeable taste: people still bathe their eyes with it, in memory of the miracle performed on the man born blind.⁴ From this pool, on the last day of the feast of tabernacles, which was a day of great festivity among the Jews, it was the custom to fetch water, some of which they drank with loud acclamations of joy and thanksgiving, and some was brought to the altar, where it was poured upon the evening sacrifice. During this solemn offering the people sang with transports of joy the twelfth chapter of Isaiah's prophecy, particularly the third verse — *With joy shall ye draw water from the wells of salvation*. To this custom our Lord alludes in John vii. 37.: it was observed, in commemoration of their forefathers being miraculously relieved when they thirsted in the wilderness; and the water poured on the altar was

¹ For an account and refutation of the antient traditions concerning the Dead Sea, see Dr. Clarke's *Travels*, vol. iv. pp. 400—406. 8vo.

² See the article *RED SEA*, in the Geographical Index, *infra*.

³ When Capt. Light descended in 1814, into the beautiful plain of Sephora, or Sephoray, at a short distance from Nazareth, he saw in the centre a band of herdsmen, armed with muskets, watering their cattle in a large stone reservoir. With them he was obliged to have an altercation before they would permit him to water his horse, without paying for the privilege. *Travels*, p. 196.

⁴ Chateaubriand's *Travels*, vol. ii. pp. 34. 36. Mr. Buckingham, who visited the fountain of Siloam in 1816. (a few years after Viscount Chateaubriand), describes it as a dirty, little brook, which even in the rainy season is said to be an insignificant, muddy stream. *Travels in Palestine*, p. 188. See also Richardson's *Travels*, vol. ii. p. 367.

brought as a drink-offering to God, when they prayed for rain against the following seed-time.

2. *Jacob's Well* or fountain is situated at a small distance from Sichem or Sechem, also called Sychar, and at present Napolose; it was the residence of Jacob before his sons slew the Shechemites. It has been visited by pilgrims of all ages, but especially by Christians, to whom it has become an object of veneration from the memorable discourse of our Saviour with the woman of Samaria.¹ (John iv. 5—30.)

In consequence of the scarcity of water in the East, travellers are careful to stop as often as possible near some river, fountain, or well: this will probably account for Jacob's halting with his family at the ford Jabbok (Gen. xxxii. 22.); for the Israelites assembling their forces near the fountains of Jezreel (1 Sam. xxix. 1.), as the celebrated Moslem warrior Saladin afterwards did²; and for David's men that were unable to march with him, waiting for him by the brook Besor. (1 Sam. xxx. 21.) It is not improbable that the antient wells, mentioned in Gen. xvi. 14. xxiv. 20. and Exod. ii. 16., were furnished with some conveniences for drawing water to refresh the fainting traveller, and with troughs or other contrivances for supplying cattle with water, similar to those which are to this day found in Persia, Arabia, and the East Indies. Great precautions were taken antiently as well as in modern times, to prevent the moving sands from choking up their wells, by placing a stone over the mouth (Gen. xxix. 2—8.) after the requisite supply had been drawn up; or by *locking* them up, which Sir John Chardin thinks was done at Laban's well, of which Rachel perhaps kept the key. (Gen. xxix. 6. 9.) The stopping up of wells is to this day an act of hostility in the East, as it was in the days of Abraham and Isaac, (Gen. xxvi. 15—18.) and of Hezekiah (2 Chron. xxxii. 3, 4.), and also long after among several antient nations. Thus, the Scythians, in their retreat before the Persians, under Darius, filled up the wells and fountains which lay in their way³: and Arsaces ordered the wells to be broken and filled up, upon the advance of Antiochus from Ecbatana; while the latter, who was fully aware of their consequence to himself and his army, sent a detachment of a thousand horse, to drive away the Persian cavalry who were employed upon

Dr. Clarke's Travels, vol. iv. pp. 278—280. Some learned men have conjectured Jacob's well was only a cistern or reservoir for rain water; but the whole of the surrounding scenery confirms the evangelist's narrative, and the antiquity of the well. Such cisterns, indeed, are common in the oriental deserts to this day; and it is perhaps the conveniences of this kind, made or renewed by the devout Israelites in the valley of Gethsemane, to facilitate their going up to Jerusalem, that the Psalmist refers (lxxxiv. 6, 7.) where he speaks of going from strength to strength till they appeared in Zion. Harmer's Observations, vol. ii. p. 184. To prevent accidents by the owners of such cisterns leaving them uncovered, Moses enacted various regulations. See Exod. xxi. 33, 34.

² Harmer's Observations, vol. iii. p. 401. The Christian kings of Jerusalem, in the close of the twelfth century, also assembled their forces at a fountain between Nazareth and Sephoris. *Ibid.*

³ Herodotus, lib. iv. c. 120. tom. i. p. 232. Oxon. 1809.

this service.¹ Wells and fountains were also lurking places of robbers and assassins, and enemies were accustomed to lie in ambush at them as they are now. To this Deborah alludes in her song. (Judg. v. 11.) The Crusaders suffered much from the Saracens, who lay in ambush for them in like manner; and Dr. Shaw mentions a beautiful well in Barbary, the water of which is received into a large basin for the accommodation of travellers; and which is called *Shrub we krub*, that is, *drink and away*, from the danger which they incur of meeting with assassins there.²

In our own time it is the custom for the oriental women, particularly those who are unmarried, to fetch water from the wells, in the mornings and evenings; at which times they go forth adorned with their trinkets. This will account for Rebecca's fetching water (Gen. xxiv. 15.), and will further prove that there was no impropriety in Abraham's servant presenting her with more valuable jewels than those she had before on her hands. (Gen. xxiv. 22—47.)³

IV. Palestine is a mountainous country, especially that part of it which is situated between the Mediterranean or Great Sea and the river Jordan. The principal *Mountains* are those of Lebanon, Carmel, Tabor, the mountains of Israel, and of Gilead: those which are either within the limits, or in the immediate vicinity of Jerusalem, have been noticed in pp. 18, 19. *supra*.

1. *Lebanon*, by the Greeks and Latins termed *Libanus*, is a long chain of limestone mountains, extending from the neighbourhood of Sidon on the west to the vicinity of Damascus eastward, and forming the extreme northern boundary of the Holy Land. Antiently, it abounded with odoriferous trees of various descriptions, from which the most curious gums and balsams were extracted; whence some have derived its name, Lebanon, which signifies frankincense.⁴ It is divided into two principal ridges or ranges parallel to each other, the most westerly of which is known by the name of *Libanus*, and the opposite or eastern ridge by the ap-

¹ Polybius, lib. x. c. 29. tom. iii. p. 253. edit. Schweighauser.

² Harmer's Observations, vol. iii. p. 409. Shaw's Travels, vol. i. p. 63. 8vo. Burckhardt's Travels in Syria, &c. p. 627.

³ Harmer's Observations, vol. i. pp. 198, 199. vol. ii. pp. 125, 184, 193. vol. iii. p. 401. "In the valley of Nazareth," says Dr. Clarke, "appeared one of those fountains, which, from time immemorial, have been the halting place of caravans, and sometimes the scene of contention and bloodshed. The women of Nazareth were passing to and from the town, with pitchers upon their heads. We stopped to view the group of camels with their drivers who were there reposing; and calling to mind the manners of the most remote ages, we renewed the solicitations of Abraham's servant unto Rebecca, by the well of Nahor. Gen. xxiv. 17." (Travels, vol. iv. p. 165.) The same traveller observed a similar custom in the Isle of Syros. (vol. vi. p. 152, 153.) In Bengal it is the universal practice for the women to go to pools and rivers to fetch water. Companies of four, six, ten, or more, may be seen in every town, daily, going to fetch water, with the pitchers resting on their sides. (Ward's View of the History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. ii. p. 316.) In the island of Goza, which is eighteen miles from Malta, Mr. Jowett says, that the women, as they go to the wells for water, carry their empty pitchers horizontally on their heads, with the mouth looking backwards. (Missionary Register for 1818, p. 297.) May not this illustrate Jer. xiv. 3.?

⁴ The heights of *ομοιος* Lebanon are eulogised by Musaeus: — Ἀβανὺν συνοικτος ἐνὶ πτερύγεσσιν.

pellation of Anti-Libanus: but the Hebrews do not make this distinction of names, denominating both summits by the common name of Lebanon. These mountains may be seen from a very considerable distance, and some part or other of them is covered with snow throughout the year. On the loftiest summit of all, Dr. Clarke observed the snow lying, not in patches, as he had seen it during the summer upon the tops of very elevated mountains, but investing all the higher part with that perfect white and smooth velvet-like appearance which snow only exhibits when it is very deep—a striking spectacle in such a climate, where the beholder seeking protection from a burning sun, almost considers the firmament to be on fire.¹ These mountains are by no means barren, but are almost all well cultivated, and well peopled: their summits are, in many parts, level, and form extensive plains, in which are sown corn and all kinds of pulse. They are watered by numerous springs, rivulets, and streams of excellent water, which diffuse on all sides a freshness and fertility even in the most elevated regions. To these Solomon has a beautiful allusion. (Song iv. 15.) Vineyards, and plantations of mulberry, olive, and fig trees are also cultivated on terraces formed by walls, which support the earth from being washed away by the rains from the sides of the acclivities.² The soil of the declivities, and of the hollows that occur between them is most excellent, and produces abundance of corn, oil, and wine; which is as much celebrated in the East in the present day as it was in the time of the prophet Hosea, who particularly alludes to it. (Hos. xiv. 7.) Lebanon was antiently celebrated for its stately cedars, which are now less numerous than in former times³; they grow among the snow near the highest part of the mountain, and are remarkable, as well for their age and size, as for the frequent allusions made to them in the Scriptures. (See 1 Kings iv. 33. Psal. lxxx. 10. and xcii. 12. &c. &c.) They stand on uneven ground, and form a small wood, and the number of the largest trees has varied at different times. According to Belloni, who visited them in 1550, there were then twenty-eight. Rauwolf, in 1575, computes them at twenty-four. Dandini, in 1660, and Thevenot, about fifty years after, make them twenty-three. The Rev. Henry Maundrell, who travelled in this region in 1696, reckoned sixteen of the largest size one of which he measured, and found it to be twelve yards and six inches in girth, and yet sound; and thirty seven yards in the spread of the boughs. The celebrated oriental traveller, Mr. Burckhardt, who traversed Mount Libanus in 1810, counted eleven or twelve of the oldest and best looking trees, twenty-five very large ones, about fifty of middling size, and more than three hundred smaller and young ones: and final-

¹ Dr. Clarke's Travels, vol. iv. pp. 201, 202.

² Light's Travels, p. 219.

³ Mr. Kenneir, who visited this country at the close of the year 1813, says, that the once celebrated cedars are now only to be found in one particular spot of the great mountainous range which bears the name of Libanus, and that in so scanty a number as not to exceed four or five hundred. Journey through Asia Minor, &c. p. 172. 8vo. 1818.

ly, Dr. Richardson, in 1818, states the oldest trees to be no more than seven.¹ The oldest trees are distinguished by having the foliage and small branches at the top only, and by four, five, or even seven trunks springing from one base; the branches and trunks of the others were lower: the trunks of the old trees were covered with the names of travellers and other persons who have visited them. The trunks of the oldest trees (the wood of which is of a grey tint) seemed to be quite dead.² These cedars were the resort of eagles (Ezek. xvii. 3.); as the lofty summits of the mountains were the haunts of lions and other beasts of prey (Sol. Songs. iv. 8.) which used to descend and surprise the unwary traveller. But instead of these, the traveller may now frequently see the hart or the deer issue from his covert to slake his thirst in the streams that issue from the mountains. To this circumstance David beautifully alludes in Psal. xlii. 1., which was composed when he was driven from Jerusalem by the rebellion of Absalom, and was wandering among these mountains.

Anti-Libanus or *Anti-Lebanon* is the more lofty ridge of the two, and its summit is clad with almost perpetual snow, which was carried to the neighbouring town for the purpose of cooling liquors (Prov xxv. 13. and perhaps Jer. xviii. 14.); a practice³ which has obtained in the east to the present day. Its rock is primitive calcareous, of a fine grain, with a sandy slate upon the higher parts: it affords good pasturage in many spots where the Turkmans feed their cattle, but the western declivity towards the district of Baalbec, is quite barren.⁴ The most elevated summit of this ridge was by the Hebrews called *Hermon*; by the Sidonians, *Sirion*; and by the Amorites *Shenir* (Deut. iii. 9.): it formed the northern boundary of the country beyond Jordan. Very copious dews fall here⁵, as they also did in the days of the psalmist. (See Psal. cxxxiii. 3.)⁶ In Deut. iv. 8. this mountain is called *Sion*, which seems to be either a contraction or a faulty reading for *Sirion*. This mount *Hermon* must not be confounded with another of the same, situated within the land of Canaan on the west side of the river Jordan, not far from mount Tabor.

Both Lebanon and Anti-Lebanon are computed to be about fif-

¹ Maundrell's Journey, p. 191. La Roque, Voyage de Syrie et du Mont Liban. p. 88. See also Dr. Richardson's Travels, vol. ii. pp. 512, 513.

² Burckhardt's Travels in Syria and the Holy Land, pp. 20, 21. London, 1822. 4to.

³ Harmer's Observations, vol. ii. pp. 156, 157.

⁴ Burckhardt's Travels in Syria and the Holy Land, pp. 20, 21.

⁵ Maundrell, p. 77.

⁶ A Geographical difficulty has been supposed to exist in Psal. cxxxiii. 3., where Mount Zion is mentioned in connexion with Hermon, and is generally understood to be Mount Zion in Jerusalem, which was more than thirty miles distant. Two solutions have been proposed: one is, that Zion in this psalm is put for *Sion*; the other would render Zion *the dry mountains*. Dr. Boothroyd, however, supplies the ellipsis "which descends"—and renders the passage thus,

It is like the dew which descends on Hermon,

Or which descends on the mountains of Zion.

This version removes every difficulty.

teen or sixteen hundred fathoms in height, and offer a grand and magnificent prospect to the beholder; from which many elegant metaphors are derived by the sacred writers. (See Isa. x. 34. xxix. 17. and xxxv. 2.) Lebanon was justly considered as a very strong barrier to the Land of Promise, and opposing an almost insurmountable obstacle to the movements of cavalry and to chariots of war. "When therefore Sennacherib, in the arrogance of his heart, and the pride of his strength, wished to express the ease with which he had subdued the greatest difficulties, and how vain was the resistance of Hezekiah and his people, he says: *By the multitude of my chariots have I come to the height of the mountains, to the sides of Lebanon! and I will cut down the tall cedars thereof, and the choice fir-trees thereof; and I will enter into the height of his border, and the forest of his Carmel.* (Isa. xxxvii. 24.) What others accomplish on foot, with much labour and the greatest difficulty, by a winding path cut into steps, which no beast of burden, except the cautious and sure-footed mule can tread, that haughty monarch vaunted he could perform with horses and a multitude of chariots."¹

2. *Mount Carmel* is situated about ten miles to the south of Acre or Ptolemais, on the shore of the Mediterranean Sea: it is a range of hills extending six or eight miles nearly north and south, coming from the plain of Esdraelon, and ending in the promontory or cape which forms the bay of Accho or Acre. It is very rocky, and is composed of a whitish stone, with flints imbedded in it. On the east is a fine plain watered by the river Kishon; and, on the west, a narrower plain descending to the sea. Its greatest height does not exceed fifteen hundred feet.² The summits of this mountain are said to abound with oaks and other trees; and, among brambles, wild vines and olive trees are still to be found, proving that industry had formerly been employed on this ungrateful soil: nor is there any deficiency of fountains and rivulets, so grateful to the inhabitants of the East. On the side next the sea is a cave, to which some commentators have supposed that the prophet Elijah desired Ahab to bring Baal's prophets, when celestial fire descended on his sacrifice. (1 Kings xviii. 19—40.) Carmel appears to have been the name, not of the hill only distinguished as Mount Carmel, on the top of which the faithful prophet Elijah offered sacrifice, but also of the whole district, which afforded the richest pasture. This was the *excellency of Carmel* which Isaiah (xxxv. 2.) opposes to the barren desert. It is mentioned by Amos (i. 2.) as *the habitations of the shepherds*. The expression, *forest of his Carmel* (2 Kings xix. 23. Isa. xxxvii. 24.), implies that it abounded at one time with wood: but its remoteness, as the border county of Palestine, and the wilderness characteristic of pastoral highlands, rather than its loftiness or its inaccessibility, must be alluded to by the prophet Amos. (ix. 2, 3.) There was another Mount Carmel, with a city of the

¹ Paxton's Illustrations of Scripture, vol. i. p. 194. First edition.

² Buckingham's Travels in Palestine, pp. 119, 120.

same name, situated in the tribe of Judah, and mentioned in Joshua xv. 55. 1 Sam. xxv. 2. and 2 Sam. iii. 3.

3. *Tabor* or *Thabor* is a calcareous mountain of a conical form, entirely detached from any neighbouring mountain, and stands on one side of the great plain of Esdraelon: the sides are rugged and precipitous, but clothed with trees and brush-wood, except on the southern side of the mountain. Here Barak was encamped, when, at the suggestion of Deborah, he descended with ten thousand men, and discomfited the host of Sisera. (Judg. iv.) The mountain is computed to be nearly one mile in height; to a person standing at its foot, it appears to terminate in a point; but when arrived at the top, he is agreeably surprised to find an oval plain of about a quarter of a mile in its greatest length, covered with a bed of fertile soil on the west, and having on its eastern side a mass of ruins, seemingly the vestiges of churches, grottoes and strong walls, all decidedly of some antiquity, and a few appearing to be the works of a very remote age.¹ The prospects from this mountain are singularly delightful and extensive. To the south lie the *Mountains of Engedda and Samaria*; to the north-east appears *Mount Hermon*, beneath which were Nain and Endor. To the north lie the *Mount of the Beatitudes*², where Christ delivered his divine sermon to the multitude, (who were miraculously fed in its vicinity,) and the *Mountains of Gilboa* so fatal to Saul. The latter are still called by the natives *Djebel Gilbo* or *Mount Gilbo*. They are a lengthened ridge, rising up in peaks about eight hundred feet above the level of the road, probably about one thousand feet above the level of the Jordan, and about twelve hundred above that of the sea; and bounding the plain of the Jordan on the west. A little withered grass and a few scanty shrubs, dispersed in different places, constitute the whole produce of the mountains of Gilboa.³ The Sea of Tiberias is clearly discovered towards the north-east, terminated by the snow-capped Hermon.⁴ On the eastern side of Tabor there is a small height, which by antient tradition is supposed to have been the scene of our Lord's transfiguration.⁵ (Matt. xvii. 1—8. Mark ix. 2—9.) During the greater part of the summer, the mountain is

¹ Jolliffe's Letters from Palestine, p. 140. Buckingham's Travels in Palestine, p. 104. Burckhardt's Travels in Syria, &c. p. 334. The vignette of this mountain in p. 26. is copied from Dr. E. D. Clarke's Travels, vol. iv. p. 234. It represents the mountain as seen in crossing the plain of Jezreel or Esdraelon.

² This hill may have an elevation of from two to three hundred feet. The prospect from its summit, which is an area of many acres containing scattered ruins, is both extensive and beautiful. Wilson's Travels in Egypt and the Holy Land, p. 343. (London, 1822. 8vo.)

³ Richardson's Travels, vol. ii. p. 425.

⁴ Light's Travels, p. 200.

⁵ From the silence of the evangelists as to the mountain of transfiguration, and from the circumstance of Jesus Christ being just before at Cæsarea Philippi, some learned men have contended that Tabor could not have been the scene of that great event. No mountain, it is true, is specified by the evangelist, nor is the fact of Tabor being a mountain apart by itself any argument in point; but, as the sacred writers expressly state it to have happened six days after our Saviour's discourse at Cæsarea Philippi, he had time enough to return into Galilee, which was not above twenty-five leagues' distance from Tabor. It is therefore not improbable that this mountain was the scene of his transfiguration.

covered in the morning with thick clouds which disperse towards mid-day. *Mount Carmel* is to the south-west and conceals the Mediterranean from view; and at the foot of this mountain the spacious and cultivated plain of Esdraelon spreads itself.

4. The *Mountains of Israel*, also called the *Mountains of Ephraim*, were situated in the very centre of the Holy Land, and opposite to the *Mountains of Judah*. The soil of both ridges is fertile, excepting those parts of the mountains of Israel which approach the region of the Jordan, and which are both rugged and difficult of ascent, and also with the exception of the chain extending from the mount of Olives near Jerusalem to the plain of Jericho, which has always afforded lurking places to robbers. (Luke x. 30.) The most elevated summit of this ridge, which appears to be the same that was antiently called the rock of Rimmon (Judg. xx. 45. 47.), is at present known by the name of *Quarantania*, and is supposed to have been the scene of our Saviour's temptation. (Matt. iv. 8.) It is described by Maundrell¹, as situated in a mountainous desert, and being a most miserably dry and barren place, consisting of high rocky mountains, torn and disordered, as if the earth had here suffered some great convulsion. The celebrated Mountains of *Ebal* (sometimes written Gebal) and *Gerizim* (Deut. xi. 29. xxvii. 4. 12. Josh. viii. 30—35.) are separated from each other merely by an intervening valley; they are situate, the former to the north, and the latter to the south of Sichem or Napolose, whose streets run parallel to the latter mountain, which overlooks the town. In the Mountains of Judah there are numerous caves, some of a considerable size: the most remarkable of these is the cave of Adullam, mentioned in 1 Sam. xxii. 1, 2.

5. The *Mountains of Gilead* are situated beyond the Jordan, and extend from Anti-Libanus or Mount Hermon southward into Arabia Petraea. The northern part of them, known by the name of *Bashan*, was celebrated for its stately oaks², and numerous herds of cattle pastured on its fertile soil, to which there are many allusions in the Scriptures. (See, among other passages, Deut. xxxii. 14. Psal. xxii. 12., and lxviii. 15. Isa. ii. 13. Ezek. xxxix. 18. Amos iv. 1.) The hair of the goats that browsed about Mount Gilead, appears from Cant. iv. 1. to have been as fine as that of the oriental goat, which is well known to be possessed of the fineness of the most delicate silk, and is often employed in modern times for the manufacture of muffs. The middle part of this mountainous range, in a stricter sense, was termed *Gilead*; and in the southern part, beyond Jordan, were the *Mountains of Abarim*³, the northern limits of the

¹ Maundrell, pp. 106, 107. A later traveller, however, (Mr. Jolliffe) is of opinion, that the view from this mountain is not sufficiently extensive. Letters from Palestine, p. 129.

² The oak, which in antient times supplied the Tyrians with oars (Ezek. xxvii. 6.) is still frequently to be found here; the soil is most luxuriantly fertile; and the nomadic Arab inhabitants are as robust and comely as we may conceive as antient possessors to have been, according to the notices which incidentally occur in the Sacred Volume. See Mr. Buckingham's interesting description of this region. Travels, pp. 325—329.

³ *Abarim* denotes passes or passages.

territory of Moab, which are conjectured to have derived their name from the passes between the hills of which they were formed. The most eminent among these are *Pisgah* and *Nebo*, which form a continued chain, and command a view of the whole land of Canaan (Deut. iii. 27. xxxii. 48—50. xxxiv. 1, 2, 3.) From Mount Nebo Moses surveyed the promised land, before he was *gathered to his people*. (Numb. xxvii. 12, 13.) The Hebrews frequently give the epithet of *everlasting* to their mountains, because they are as old as the earth itself. See, among other instances, Gen. xlix. 26. and Deut. xxxiii. 15.

The mountains of Palestine were antiently places of refuge to the inhabitants when defeated in war (Gen. xiv. 10.); and modern travellers assure us that they are still resorted to for the same purpose.¹ The rocky summits found on many of them appear to have been not unfrequently employed as altars, on which sacrifices were offered to Jehovah (Judg. vi. 19—21. and xiii. 15—20.); although they were afterwards converted into places for idol worship, for which the prophets Isaiah (lvii. 7.) and Ezekiel (xviii. 6.) severely reprove their degenerate countrymen. And as many of the mountains of Palestine were situated in desert places, the *shadow* they project has furnished the prophet Isaiah with a pleasing image of the security that shall be enjoyed under the kingdom of Messiah.² (xxxii. 2.)

From the mountains, the transition to the *Vallies* is natural and easy. Of those which are mentioned in the sacred writings, the following are the most celebrated, viz.

1. The *Valley of Blessing* (in Hebrew, the Valley of Berachah,) in the tribe of Judah, on the west side of the lake of Sodom and in the wilderness of Tekoah. It derived its name from a signal victory which God granted to the pious king Jehoshaphat over the combined forces of the Moabites, Edomites, and Ammonites.

2. The *Vale of Siddim*, memorable for the overthrow of Chedorlaomer and his confederate emirs or kings. (Gen. xiv. 2—10.) In this vale stood the cities of Sodom and Gomorrah, which were afterwards destroyed by fire from heaven, on which account this vale is also termed the *Salt Sea*. (Gen. xiv. 3.)

4. The *Valley of Shaveh*, also called the *King's Dale* (Gen. xiv. 17. 2 Sam. xviii. 18.), derived its name from a city of the same name that stood in it. Here Melchisedek, king of Salem, met the victorious Abraham after the defeat of the confederate kings. (Gen. xiv. 18.)

4. The *Vale of Salt* is supposed to have been in the land of Edom, east of the Dead Sea, between Tadmor and Bozrah. Here both David and Amaziah discomfited the Edomites. (2 Sam. viii. 13. 2 Kings xiv. 7.)

¹ Harmer's Observations, vol. iii. pp. 429, 430.

² "The shadow of a great projecting rock is the most refreshing that is possible in a hot country, not only as most perfectly excluding the rays of the sun, but also having in itself a natural coolness, which it reflects and communicates to every thing about it." Bishop Lowth's Isaiah, vol. ii. p. 221. "See also Dr. Henderson's Travels in Iceland, vol. i. p. 206. and Dr. Richardson's Travels along the Mediterranean, &c. vol. ii. p. 186.

5. The *Valley of Mamre* received its name from Mamre an Amorite, who was in alliance with Abraham: it was celebrated for the oak, (or as some critics render it terebinth-)tree, under which the patriarch dwelt (Gen xiii. 18.), in the vicinity of Hebron.

6. The *Valley of the Rephaim* (or the Giant's Valley), was so called from its gigantic inhabitants: it was situated on the confines of the territories allotted to the tribes of Judah and Benjamin. It was memorable, as often times being the field of battle between the Philistines and the Jews under David and his successors. (2 Sam. v. 18. 22. xxiii. 13. 1 Chron. xi. 15. and xiv. 9.) This valley also appears antiently to have been distinguished for its abundant harvests. (Isa. xvii. 5.) Like all the country about Jerusalem, it is now stony, and scantily furnished with patches of light red soil.¹

7. The *Valley of Bochim* (or of Weeping) was thus denominated from the universal mourning of the Israelites, on account of the denunciations there made against them, for their disobedience to the divine commands respecting the nations whom they had invaded. (Judg. ii. 5.)

8. Three miles from Bethlehem, on the road to Jaffa, lies the celebrated *Terebinthine Vale*, or *Valley of Elah*, renowned for nineteen centuries as the field of the victory gained by the youthful David over the uncircumcised champion of the Philistines, who had defied the armies of the living God. (1 Sam. xvii. 2, 3.) Nothing has ever occurred to alter the appearance of the country. The very brook, whence David chose him five smooth stones, has been noticed by many a thirsty pilgrim, journeying from Jaffa to Jerusalem; all of whom must pass it in their way. The ruins of goodly edifices attest the religious veneration entertained in later periods for the hallowed spot: but even these are now become so insignificant, that they are scarcely discernible; and nothing can be said to interrupt the native dignity of this memorable scene.²

9. The narrow *Valley of Hinnom* lies at the foot of Mount Zion, and is memorable for the inhuman and barbarous, as well as idolatrous worship, here paid to Moloch; to which deity parents sacrificed their smiling offspring by making them pass through the fire. (2 Kings xxiii. 10. 2 Chron. xxviii. 3.) To drown the lamentable shrieks of the children thus immolated, musical instruments (in Hebrew termed *Tuph*) were played; whence the spot, where the victims were burnt, was called Tophet. From the same circumstance, Ge-Hinnom (which in Hebrew denotes the *Valley of Hinnom*, and from which the Greek word Γέεννα, *Gehenna*, is derived,) is sometimes used to denote hell or hell-fire.

VI. The country of Judæa, being mountainous and rocky, is full of caverns; to which the inhabitants were accustomed to flee for shelter from the incursions of their enemies. (Judg. vi. 2. 1 Sam. xiii. 6. xiv. 11.) Some of these appear to have been on low grounds,

¹ Buckingham's Travels, p. 216.

² Dr. Clarke's Travels, vol. iv. p. 422.

and liable to inundations, when the rivers, swollen by torrents or dissolving snows, overflowed their banks, and carried all before them with resistless fury. To the sudden destruction thus produced Isaiah probably alludes. (xxxviii. 17.) Therefore, to enter *into the holes of the rocks, and into the caves of the earth, for fear of the Lord*, (Isa. ii. 19.) was to the Jews a very proper image to express terror and consternation. The prophet Hosea has carried the same image further, and added great strength and spirit to it (x. 8.); which image, together with these of Isaiah, is adopted by the sublime author of the Revelation (vi. 15, 16.), who frequently borrows his imagery from our prophet.¹

Some of these caves were very capacious: that of Engedi was so large, that David and six hundred men concealed themselves in its sides; and Saul entered the mouth of the cave without perceiving that any one was there. Josephus² has taken particular notice of such caverns, which in his time were the abode of robbers. Maundrell³ has described a large cavern under a high rocky mountain in the vicinity of Sidon, containing two hundred smaller caverns, which are supposed to have been the residence of the original inhabitants. Numerous caves were noticed by Mr. Buckingham⁴ in the rock to the south of Nazareth; several of which now, as antiently, serve as dwellings to the Nazarenes. Captain Lyon has described similar residences occupied by a tribe of Troglodytes in northern Africa⁵. It was probably in some such cave that Lot and his two daughters dwelt after the destruction of Sodom (Gen. xix. 30.): and in similar caverns, excavated by primeval shepherds as a shelter from the scorching beams of the sun, Dr. Clarke and his fellow-travellers found a grateful protection from the intense heat of the solar rays⁶. These were sometimes the haunts or strong-holds of robbers (as

¹ Bishop Lowth's Isaiah, vol. ii. p. 37.

² Antiq. lib. xiv. c. 15. § 5.

³ Travels, pp. 158, 159.

⁴ Travels in Palestine, p. 113.

⁵ "As the natives live under ground, a person unacquainted with the circumstance might cross the mountain without once suspecting that it was inhabited. All the dwelling-places being formed in the same manner, a description of the scheik's may suffice for the rest. The upper soil is sandy earth of about four feet in depth; under this sand, and in some places lime-stone, a large hole is dug to the depth of twenty-five or thirty feet, and its breadth in every direction is about the same, being as nearly as can be made, a perfect square. The rock is then smoothed, so as to form perpendicular sides to this space, in which doors are cut through, and arched chambers excavated, so as to receive their light from the doors: these rooms are sometimes three or four of a side, in others, a whole side composes one: the arrangements depending on the number of the inhabitants. In the open court is generally a well, water being found at about ten or twelve feet below the base of the square. The entrance to the house is about thirty-six yards from the pit, and opens above ground. It is arched over head; is generally cut in a winding direction, and is perfectly dark. Some of these passages are sufficiently large to admit a loaded camel. The entrance has a strong wall built over it, something resembling an ice-house. This is covered over-head, and has a very strong heavy door, which is shut at night, or in cases of danger. At about ten yards from the bottom is another door equally strong, so that it is almost impossible to enter these houses, should the inhabitants determine to resist. Few Arab attacks last long enough to end in a siege. All their sheep and poultry being confined in the house at night, the bashaw's army, when here, had recourse to locating the inmates, being unable to starve them out."—See Capt.

⁶ von's Travels in Northern Africa, p. 25.

⁷ Travels in Greece, &c. vol. iv. pp. 189, 190.

the excavations in the rocks near Bethlehem are to this day)¹, and to them our Lord probably alludes in Matt. xxi. 13., where he reproaches the Jews with having profaned the temple of God, and made it *a den of thieves*.

VII. Numerous fertile and level tracts are mentioned in the sacred volume, under the title of *Plains*. Three of these are particularly worthy of notice, viz.

1. The *Plain of the Mediterranean Sea*, which reached from the river of Egypt to Mount Carmel. The tract between Gaza and Joppa was simply called the *Plain*: in this stood the five principal cities of the Philistine satrapies, Ascalon, Gath, Gaza, Ekron or Accaron, and Azotus or Ashdod. The tract from Joppa to Mount Carmel was called Saron or *Sharon*; which however is a different place from the Sharon that lies between Mount Tabor and the Sea of Tiberias, and from another place of the same name, which was celebrated for its pastures, and was situated in the tribe of Gad beyond Jordan.

2. The *Plain of Jezreel* or of *Esdraelon*, also called the *Great Plain* (the Armageddon of the Apocalypse), extends from Mount Carmel and the Mediterranean to the place where the Jordan issues from the Sea of Tiberias, through the middle of the Holy Land. Here, in the most fertile part of the land of Canaan, the tribe of Issachar *rejoiced in their tents*. (Deut. xxxiii. 18.) In the first ages of Jewish history, as well as during the Roman empire and the crusades, and even in later times, it has been the scene of many a memorable contest. Here it was that Barak, descending with his ten thousand men from Mount Tabor, discomfited Sisera and *all his chariots, even nine hundred chariots of iron, and all the people that were with him, gathered from Haroseth of the Gentiles unto the river of Kishon*; when *all the host of Sisera fell upon the sword, and there was not a man left*; when *the kings came and fought, the kings of Canaan in Taanach by the waters of Megiddo*. (Judg. iv. 13. 15, 16. v. 19.) Here also it was that Josiah, king of Judah, fought in disguise against Necho king of Egypt, and fell by the arrows of his antagonist. (2 Kings xxiii. 29.) So great were the lamentations for his death, that the mourning of Josiah became *an ordinance* in Israel (2 Chron. xxxv. 24, 25.): and *the great mourning in Jerusalem*, foretold by Zechariah (xii. 11.), is said to be as the lamentations in the plain of Esdraelon, or, according to the Prophet's language, *as the mourning of Hadadrimmon in the valley of Megiddon*. Josephus often mentions this very remarkable part of the Holy Land, and always under the appellation of the *Great Plain*: and under the same name it is also mentioned by Eusebius and by Jerome. It has been a chosen place for encampment in every contest carried on in this country, from the days of Nabuchadonosor

¹ Clarke's Travels, vol. iv. p. 421. See also Sir R. K. Porter's Travels in Georgia, Persia, &c. vol. ii. pp. 540—554. for a description of the caves in the mountain of Kerestö (in the province of eastern Courdistan), which tradition states to have been antiently used for the same purpose.

king of the Assyrians, in the history of whose war with Arphaxad it is mentioned as *the Great Plain of Esdrelom*¹, until the disastrous march of the late Napoleon Buonaparte from Egypt into Syria. Jews, Gentiles, Saracens, Christian crusaders, and anti-christian Frenchmen, Egyptians, Persians, Druses, Turks and Arabs, warriors *out of every nation which is under heaven*, have pitched their tents in the Plain of Esdraelon, and have beheld the various banners of their nation wet with the dews of Tabor and of Hermon.² This plain is enclosed on all sides by mountains: not a house or tree is to be discovered in it, yet the whole appears to be cultivated. It now bears the name of *Fooli*, and has been celebrated in modern times by the victory which Murat gained over the Mamelukes and Arabs, in their attempt to relieve Acri or Acre, in April 1799.³

3. The *Region round about Jordan*, (Matt. iii. 5.) comprised the level country on both sides of that river, from the lake of Genesareth to the Dead Sea. Of this district the *Plain of Jericho*, celebrated for its fertility and the intense heat that prevails there during the hot season, forms a part; as also do the *Valley of Salt* near the Salt or Dead Sea, (where David defeated the Syrians (1 Chron. xviii. 3—8.) and Amaziah discomfited the Edomites⁴), and the *Plains of Moab* where the Israelites encamped⁵, and which are also called *Shittim* in Numb. xxv. 1 Josh. ii. 1. and iii. 1., the *Plains of Shittim*, in Numb. xxxiii. 49. (marginal rendering), and the *Valley of Shittim* in Joel iii. 18.

VIII. Frequent mention is made in the Scriptures of *Wildernesses* or *Deserts*, by which we usually understand desolate places, equally void of cities and inhabitants. The deserts noticed in the Bible, however, are of a different description; as the Hebrews were accustomed to give the name of desert or wilderness to all places that were not cultivated⁶, but which were chiefly appropriated to the feeding of cattle, and in many of them trees and shrubs grew wild. Hence this term is frequently applied to the commons (as they would be called in England) which were contiguous to cities or villages, and on which the plough never came. The wildernesses or deserts of Palestine, therefore, are twofold: some are mountainous and well watered, while others are sterile sandy plains, either destitute of water, or affording a very scanty supply from the few brackish springs that are occasionally to be found in them; yet even these afford a grateful though meagre pasturage to camels, goats, and sheep.

The Deserts of the Hebrews frequently derive their appellations from the places to which they were contiguous. Thus the *Desert* or *Wilderness of Shur*, lay towards the north-eastern point of the Red Sea. In this wilderness, Hagar wandered, when unjustly driven

¹ Judith. ² Clarke's Travels, vol. iv. pp. 255—258. ³ Light's Travels, p. 201.

⁴ 2 Kings. iv. 7. 2 Chron. xxv. 11.

⁵ Numb. xxiii. 1. xxvi. 3.

⁶ The Arabs to this day give the appellation of *Desert* to any solitude, whether barren or fertile. Clarke's Travels, vol. iv. p. 422.

from Abraham's house by the jealousy of Sarah (Gen. xvi. 7.) : and the Israelites marched through this wilderness after they had miraculously crossed the Red Sea (Exod. xv. 22.), as they also did subsequently through the *Wilderness* or *Desert of Paran*, which lay considerably more to the south. (Numb. x. 12.) In this desert (which was situated in Arabia Petræa, near a city of the same name) Ishmael resided : and hence Moses sent out spies to bring intelligence concerning the promised land. (Numb. xiii. 3.) The *Desert of Sinai* was that in the vicinity of Mount Sinai in Arabia : here the Israelites were for a long time encamped, and received the chief part of the laws delivered to them by Jehovah through the ministry of Moses. The *Wilderness of Ziph* was contiguous to a town or village of the same name, and here David concealed himself for some time. (1 Sam. xxiii. 14, 15.) But the most celebrated of all is the *Great Desert*, called the *Wilderness* or *Desert of Judæa* (Psal. lxxiii. title) ; which, commencing from Tekoah in the tribe of Judah, (whence it is termed the *Wilderness of Tekoah*, 2 Chron. xx. 20.) extends through Arabia Petræa to the Persian Gulph. In this desert John the Baptist abode till the day of his shewing unto Israel (Luke i. 80.) ; and here he first taught his countrymen. (Matt. iii. 1. Mark i. 4. John x. 40.)

The vast *Desert of Arabia*, reaching from the eastern side of the Red Sea to the confines of the land of Canaan, in which the children of Israel sojourned after their departure from Egypt, is in the sacred writings particularly called THE DESERT ; very numerous are the allusions made to it, and to the divine protection and support, which were extended to them during their migration. Moses, when recapitulating their various deliverances, terms this desert a *desert land and waste howling wilderness* (Deut. xxxii. 10.) — and *that great and terrible wilderness*, wherein were *fiery serpents, scorpions, and drought, where there was no water*. (Deut. viii. 15.) The prophet Hosca describes it as a *land of great drought*, (Hos. xiii. 5.) But the most minute description is that in Jer. ii. 6. — *a land of deserts and of pits, a land of drought, and of the shadow of death¹, a land that no man passed through, and where no man dwelt*. These characteristics of the desert², particularly the want of water, will ac-

¹ This expression has exercised the ingenuity of commentators, whose opinions are recited by Mr. Harmer (Observations, vol. iv. pp. 115, 116.) but the correctness of the prophetic description is confirmed by the existence of a similar desert in Persia. It is a tract of land broken into deep ravines, destitute of water, and of dreariness without example. The Persians have given to it the extraordinary but emphatic appellation of *Malek-el-Moatderch*, or the *Valley of the Angel of Death*. (Morier's Second Journey, p. 168.) At four hours' distance from the promontory of Carmel, keeping along the coast, Mr. Buckingham entered a dreary pass cut out of the rock, called *Waad-el-Ajal*, literally, *the Valley of the Shadow of Death*. Here were the appearances of a gate having once closed it, as places for hinges were still visible ; and, while the centre was just broad enough to admit a wheeled carriage or loaded camel, there were on each side raised causeways hewn out of the rock, as if for benches of repose, or for foot passengers. (Buckingham's Travels, p. 122.) It was, in all probability, from some similar pass, that the son of Jesse borrowed the figure of which he makes so sublime a use in the twenty-third psalm.

² Scorpions are numerous in the desert as well as in all the adjacent parts of Palestine,

count for the repeated murmurings of the Israelites both for food and water (especially the latter¹): and the extremity of their sufferings is thus concisely but most emphatically portrayed by the psalmist. (cvii. 5.)²

Hungry and thirsty, THEIR SOUL FAINTED in them.

In this our temperate climate, surrounded as we are with perpetual verdure and with every object that can delight the eye, we can scarcely conceive the horrors encountered by the hapless traveller when crossing the trackless sands, and exposed to all the arduours of a vertical sun. The most recent as well as the most graphic description of a desert (which admirably illustrates the passages above cited), is that given by the enterprising traveller, M. Belzoni, whose researches have contributed so much to the elucidation of the sacred writings. Speaking of a desert crossed by him in Upper Egypt, on the western side of the Red Sea, and which is parallel with the great desert traversed by the Israelites on the *eastern* side of that sea, he says, "It is difficult to form a correct idea of a desert, without having been in one: it is an endless plain of sand and stones, sometimes intermixed with mountains of all sizes and heights, without roads or shelter, without any sort of produce for food. The few scattered trees and shrubs of thorns, that only appear when the rainy season leaves some moisture, barely serve to feed wild animals, and a few birds. Every thing is left to nature; the wandering inhabitants do not care to cultivate even these few plants, and when there is no more of them in one place, they *go to* another. When these trees become old and lose their vegetation, the sun, which constantly beams upon them, burns and reduces them to ashes. I have seen many of them entirely burnt. The other smaller plants have no sooner risen out of the earth than they are dried up, and all take the colour of straw, with the exception of the plant *harack*; this falls off before it is dry.

"Generally speaking, in a desert, there are few springs of water, some of them at the distance of four, six, and eight days' journey from one another, and not all of sweet water: on the contrary, it is generally salt or bitter; so that if the thirsty traveller drinks of it, it increases his thirst, and he suffers more than before. But, when the calamity happens, that the next well, which is so anxiously sought for, is found dry, the misery of such a situation cannot be well described. The camels, which afford the only means of escape, are so thirsty, that they cannot proceed to another well: and, if the travellers kill them, to extract the little liquid which remains in their stomachs, they themselves cannot advance any farther. The situation must be dreadful, and admits of no resource. Many pe-

and serpents of fiery bites (as the Arabic version renders Deut. viii. 15.) are not unfrequent. Burckhardt's *Travels in Syria*, &c. pp. 499, 500.

¹ See particularly *Numb.* xx. 2—5. and *xxi.* 5.

² In the *Christian Observer* for 1810, pp. 1—9. there is a new and elegant version of the hundred and seventh psalm, accompanied with critical and explanatory notes, from the pen of Thomas Jebb.

rich, victims of the most horrible thirst. It is then that the value of a cup of water is really felt. He that has a *zenzabia* of it is the richest of all. In such a case there is no distinction. If the master has none, the servant will not give it to him; for very few are the instances, where a man will voluntarily lose his life to save that of another, particularly in a caravan in the desert, where people are strangers to each other. *What a situation for a man, though a rich one, perhaps the owner of all the caravans! He is dying for a cup of water — no one gives it to him — he offers all he possesses — no one hears him — they are all dying — though by walking a few hours farther they might be saved. — If the camels are lying down, and cannot be made to rise — no one has strength to walk — only he that has a glass of that precious liquor lives to walk a mile farther, and perhaps dies too. If the voyages on seas are dangerous, so are those in the deserts. At sea, the provisions very often fail; in the desert it is worse: at sea, storms are met with; in the desert there cannot be a greater storm than to find a dry well: at sea, one meets with pirates — we escape — we surrender — we die; in the desert they rob the traveller of all his property and water; they let him live perhaps, but what a life! to die the most barbarous and agonising death. In short, to be thirsty in a desert, without water, exposed to the burning sun without shelter, and NO HOPES of finding either, is the most terrible situation that a man can be placed in, and one of the greatest sufferings that a human being can sustain: the eyes grow inflamed; the tongue and lips swell; a hollow sound is heard in the ears, which brings on deafness, and the brains appear to grow thick and inflamed: — all these feelings arise from the want of a little water. In the midst of all this misery the deceitful morasses appear before the traveller at no great distance, something like a lake or river of clear fresh water.¹ If perchance a traveller is not undeceived, he hastens his pace to reach it sooner; the more he advances towards it, the more it recedes from him, till at last it vanishes entirely, and the deluded passenger often asks, where is the water he saw at no great distance? He can scarcely believe that he was so deceived; he protests that he saw the waves running before the wind, and the reflection of the high rocks in the water.*

“If unfortunately any one falls sick on the road, there is no alternative; he must endure the fatigue of travelling on a camel, which is troublesome even to healthy people, or he must be left behind on the sand, without any assistance, and remain so till a slow death come to relieve him. What horror! What a brutal pro-

¹ Terrific as the above description is, it is confirmed in most of its details by Quintus Curtius; who, describing the passage of Alexander the Great and his army across the deserts of Sogdiana, thus graphically delineates its horrors: — “Amidst a dearth of water, despair of obtaining any kindled thirst before nature excited it. Throughout four hundred stadia not a drop of moisture springs. As soon as the fire of summer pervades the sands, every thing is dried up, as in a kiln always burning. Steaming from the fervid expanse, which appears like a surface of sea, a cloudy vapour darkens the day. . . . The heat, which commences at dawn, exhausts the animal juices, blisters the skin, and causes internal inflammation. The soldiers sunk under depression of spirits caused by bodily debility.” Quint, Curt. lib. vii. c. 5.

ceëding to an unfortunate sick man ! No one remains with him, not even his old and faithful servant ; no one will stay and die with him ; all pity his fate, but no one will be his companion.”¹

The phenomenon, here described, is produced by a diminution of the density of the lower stratum of the atmosphere, which is caused by the increase of heat, arising from that communicated by the rays of the sun to the sand with which this stratum is in immediate contact. This phenomenon existed in the great desert of Judæa, and is expressly alluded to by the sublime and elegant Isaiah², who, when predicting the blessings of the Messiah’s spiritual kingdom, says :

*The glowing sand³ shall become a pool,
And the thirsty soil bubbling springs.*

And it is not improbable that Jeremiah refers to the serâb or mirage when, in pouring forth his complaint to God for mercies deferred, he says, *Wilt thou be altogether unto me as waters that be not sure ?* (marginal rendering of Jer. xv. 18.), that is, *which have no reality*, as the Septuagint translators have rendered it, ὕδωρ ψευδές οὐκ ἔχον πίσιν.

Frightful as the horrors of the deserts are, they are augmented beyond description, should the traveller be overtaken by one of those sand storms, which prevail during the dry seasons. Sometimes the high winds raise into the air thick clouds of dust and sand, which, descending like a shower of rain, most grievously annoy all among whom they fall, and penetrate the eyes, nostrils, ears, in short every part of the human frame that is exposed to it. At other times the sands are drifted into such heaps, that, if any storm of

¹ Belzoni’s Narrative of his Operations and Researches in Egypt, &c. (4to. London, 1820) pp. 341—343. In another part of his volume, Mr. B. more particularly describes the *mirage* (for such is the appellation by which this phenomenon is now commonly known), in the following terms : “ It generally appears like a still lake, so unmoved by the wind, that every thing above is to be seen most distinctly reflected by it. If the wind agitate any of the plants that rise above the horizon of the mirage, the motion is seen perfectly at a great distance. If the traveller stand elevated much above the mirage, the apparent water seems less united and less deep ; for, as the eyes look down upon it, there is not thickness enough in the vapour on the surface of the ground, to conceal the earth from the sight ; but, if the traveller be on a level with the horizon of the mirage, he cannot see through it, so that it appears to him clear water. By putting my head first to the ground, and then mounting a camel, the height of which from the ground might have been about ten feet at the most, I found a great difference in the appearance of the mirage. On approaching it, it becomes thinner, and appears as if agitated by the wind, like a field of ripe corn. It gradually vanishes, as the traveller approaches, and at last entirely disappears, when he is on the spot.” (p. 196.) Dr. Clarke has described the mirage, as it appeared to him on his journey to Rosetta, in 1801. (Travels, vol. iii. p. 371.) Similar descriptions, but none so full as that of Mr. Belzoni, may be seen in Sir J. Malcolm’s Hist. of Persia, vol. ii. p. 512. ; in Elphinstone’s Account of the kingdom of Caubul (p. 16. 4to. London, 1815) ; Kinneir’s Geographical Memoir of the Persian Empire (p. 223. 4to. London, 1813) ; Lieut. Pottinger’s Travels in Beloochistan and Sindh (p. 185. 4to. London, 1816) ; and in Dr. Della Cella’s Narrative of the Bey of Tripoli’s Expedition, in 1817, to the Western Frontier of Egypt, p. 58. London, 1822. 8vo.

² Isa. xxxv. 7. Bp. Lowth’s translation.

³ The phenomenon referred to by Isaiah, is termed by the Arabs, as well as by the Hebrews שָׂרָב (Serâb) ; and to this day the Persians and Arabs make use of it, by an elegant metaphor, to express disappointed hope.

wind should arise, the track is lost, and whole caravans perish in the inhospitable wilderness. Such are the showers of *powder and dust*, with which Moses denounced that God would *scourge* the disobedient Israelites, in Deut. xxviii. 24.¹

IX. Moses, addressing the Israelites a short time before his death, characterised the country whither they were going to reside, as a *good land*, — *a land of brooks of water, of fountains and depths that spring out of vallies and hills*. How justly this corresponded with the actual state of the country, the preceding pages have shewn :—Moses further added, that it was *a land of wheat and barley, and vines and fig-trees, and pomegranates, a land of oil olive and honey, whose stones were iron, and out of whose hills they might dig brass*. The enemies of revelation, forming their notions of its former exuberant fertility from the *present* state of the Holy Land under the Turkish government, have insinuated that it never could have been the lovely and fertile spot which the sacred writings affirm it to have been : but a concise statement of its productions, as we may collect them from the Scriptures, together with the attestations of antient profane writers, as well as of modern voyagers and travellers, will all concur to establish the unimpeachable veracity of the inspired writers.²

The Holy Land is said to have exceeded even the very celebrated land of Egypt, in the abundance of its produce. To this wonderful fertility many circumstances are supposed to have contributed ; such as the generally excellent temperature of the air, which was never subject to excessive heats (except in the plain of Jericho), or colds ; the regularity of its seasons, especially of the former and the latter rain : and the natural richness of the soil, which is a fine mould without stones, and almost without a pebble.

A plenty of wheat was promised to the Israelites on their obedience (Psal. lxxxi. 16. and cxlvii. 14.) ; and so abundant was the produce of the wheat and barley, that *sixty and a hundred fold* rewarded the toil of the cultivator. (Gen. xxvi. 12. and Matt. xiii. 8.) This was sometimes stored in subterraneous granaries, which in 1 Chron. xxvii. 25. are termed storehouses in the fields. Such granaries are still in use among the Moors.³ The wheat of Minith and Pannog was particularly celebrated, and so plentiful that it was exported to Tyre. (Ezek. xxvii. 17.) In the treaty concluded

¹ Fragments Supplementary to Calmet's Dictionary No. 172.

² The following account of the soil and productions of Palestine is principally derived from Reland's *Palæstina*, pp. 380—391 ; Hasselquist's *Travels* ; Dr. Shaw's *Travels*, vol. ii. pp. 138—153. ; and Volney's *Travels in Egypt and Syria*, vol. i. pp. 290—297. The testimony of Volney is the more valuable, as he was through life an inveterate enemy of the Bible, and directed his great talents to the fruitless task of destroying its credibility. To these are to be added the "Economical Calendar of Palestine," translated from the Latin of John Gottlieb Buhle by the learned editor of Calmet's Dictionary, and inserted in the Fragments supplementary to that work. See also an elaborate and pleasing Disquisition on the Agriculture of the Israelites, by the Rev. J. Plumptre, in Numbers I., II., and IV., of the Investigator, an instructive and well-conducted quarterly miscellany.

³ Chenier, *Recherches Historiques sur les Maures*, tom. iii. p. 219.

between Solomon and Hiram king of Tyre, for the building of the temple, the Hebrew monarch was to supply the latter annually with *twenty thousand measures of wheat for food to his household* (1 Kings v. 11.), and the same quantity for the hewers that cut timber (2 Chron. ii. 10.), together with an equal number of measures of barley. More than a thousand years after this time, the coasts of Tyre and Sidon were supplied with corn from Palestine. (Acts xii. 20.) This country also abounded with honey, not only that made by the industrious bees, but also with wild honey (1 Sam. xiv. 25. Deut. xxxii. 13. Psal. lxxxii. 16.), which formed a part of the food of John the Baptist in the wilderness. (Matt. iii. 4.) The Mount of Olives and other districts in Judæa and Galilee produced the finest olives; and the red wines of Lebanon were particularly celebrated for their fragrance. (Hos. xiv. 7.) The wines of Helbon furnished a profitable article of export to Damascus (Ezek. xxvii. 18.): and modern travellers attest the size and weight of the clusters of grapes still produced in Palestine, which will account for the spies carrying the cluster of grapes cut down in the valley of Eshcol (Num. xiii. 23.) between two upon a staff.

Various herbs, shrubs and trees, imparted beauty and fragrance to this highly-favoured land. Among the herbs and shrubs, the aloe (Psal. xlv. 8. Prov. vii. 17. Sol. Song iv. 14.), the hyssop (1 Kings iv. 33. Matt. xxvii. 48. Mark xv. 36.), the rose, especially the rose of Sharon (Sol. Song ii. 1.), the lily (Ibid. ii. 16. iv. 5. v. 13. Matt. vi. 28¹), the spikenard (Mark xiv. 3. 5. Sol. Song i. 12.), the mandrake (a species of melon) (Gen. xxx. 14. Sol. Song vii. 13.), the myrtle (Isa. xli. 19. and lv. 13.), and the mustard tree (Matt. xiii. 31, 32.), may be distinctly noticed.²

Although modern travellers do not mention the existence of any woods or forests, or indeed any considerable number of trees, yet it appears that, antiently, the Holy Land was well covered with wood. We read of several forests and woods in the sacred writings, particularly,

1. *The Forest of Cedars* on mount Lebanon. See 1 Kings vii. 2. 2 Kings xix. 23. Hos. xiv. 5, 6. These noble and beautiful trees have furnished the inspired writers with numerous exquisite similitudes.

2. *The Forest of Oaks* on the mountains of Bashan (Zech. xi. 2.): we may judge of the high estimation in which these oaks were held,

¹ In this passage Jesus Christ is commonly supposed to have referred to the white lily or to the tulip; but neither of these grows wild in Palestine. It is natural to presume that, according to his usual custom, he called the attention of his hearers to some object at hand; and as the fields of the Levant are overrun with the *amaryllis bulca*, whose golden liliaceous flowers, in autumn, afford one of the most brilliant and gorgeous objects in nature, the expression of *Solomon in all his glory not being arrayed like one of these*, is peculiarly appropriate. Should this conjecture prove correct, we learn a chronological fact, respecting the season of the year when the Sermon on the Mount was delivered.

² For copious accounts of these and other vegetables, as well as of the animal and mineral productions mentioned in the Scriptures, (many of which it falls not within the limits of this work to notice), the reader is referred to Dr. Harris's Natural History of the Bible.

from an incidental expression of the prophet Ezekiel; who, speaking of the power and wealth of antient Tyre, says—*Of the oaks of Bashan they have made thine qars.* (Ezek. xxvii. 6.) Groves of oaks, it is well known, were the scenes of idolatry in those remote times, on account of the grateful shelter which they afforded to the deluded worshippers. The prophet Ezekiel expressly alludes to this practice. (Ezek. vi. 13.)

3. The *Forest or Wood of Ephraim*, which the children of Ephraim began to cut down (Josh. xvii. 15.), was still standing in the time of David. (2 Sam. xviii. 6. 8. 17.) The wood in the vicinity of Bethel mentioned in 2 Kings ii. 24. appears to have been part of the wood of Ephraim.

4. The spacious *Forest of Hareth* in the tribe of Judah, to which David withdrew to avoid the fury of Saul. (1 Sam. xxii. 5.) To these perhaps may be added,

5. The thickets on the banks of the Jordan, in Zech. xi. 3. termed *the pride of Jordan*, which antiently were the coverts of wild beasts, and are to this day composed of oleanders, tamarisks, and other shrubs.

Among the trees, which adorned Palestine, the *Palm tree* claims the precedence of notice, on account of its singular utility; it affords a grateful shelter, an agreeable fruit, and a most delicious wine.¹ The finest palm trees grew in the vicinity of Jordan and Engeddi; and they still flourish in the plain of Jericho, which city was antiently termed by way of distinction the *city of palm trees*. In 1818, however, its plantations of palm trees were reduced to about one dozen.² The palm trees of Judæa are celebrated by Strabo³, and by Josephus⁴, who has particularly noticed the palm trees of Jericho. The palm tree was the common symbol of Palestine, many coins of Vespasian and other emperors⁵ being extant, in which Judæa is personified by a disconsolate woman sitting under a palm tree. As the momentary prosperity of the wicked is frequently compared to the transient verdure of grass; so the durable felicity of the righteous is in Psalm xcii. 12. likened to the lasting strength and beauty of the palm tree. “But chiefly is the comparison applicable to that Just One, the King of Righteousness and Tree of Life; eminent and upright; ever verdant and fragrant; under the greatest pressure and weight of sufferings, still ascending towards Heaven; affording both fruit and protection; incorruptible and immortal.”⁶

Olive trees are now, as antiently, abundant and fruitful; and the culture of them continues to form a particular object of attention.

¹ On the various products of the palm tree, see Kämpfer's *Amœnitates Exoticæ*, p. 665.

² Dr. Macmichael's *Travels from Moscow to Constantinople*, p. 205. *note*.

³ Lib. xvi. vol. ii. p. 1085. Oxon. 1807. folio.

⁴ De Bell. Jud. lib. i. c. 6. § 6. lib. iv. c. 8. § 3.

⁵ Dr. Shaw has enumerated them. *Travels*, vol. ii. p. 151.

⁶ Bp. Horne's *Commentary on Psal. xcii. 12.* (Works, vol. ii. p. 145.)

Various similitudes are derived from the olive tree by the inspired writers; as well as from the vine which affords a triple produce in each year. Pomegranate and apple trees were likewise cultivated to a considerable extent (Num. xiii. 23. Deut. viii. 8. Joel i. 12.), as also the almond tree, whose fruit is ripe and fit to gather about the middle of April. The citron tree was in great request for its fragrant and refreshing shade, as well as for its delicious fruit. (Sol. Song ii. 3. where it is mis-translated apple tree.) The sycamore, which partakes of the nature of the fig and the mulberry, also abounded formerly in the plain of Jericho, where it is still to be seen. Its sweetish, watery, but somewhat aromatic and not disagreeable fruit, comes to maturity several times in the year, without observing any certain seasons. It frequently attains to a considerable height, and affords a very grateful shade. From its fruit the Arabs extract an oil, which they sell to travellers, who keep it among their other holy things and pretend that it possesses a singular virtue in curing wounds, for which reason they call it the oil of Zacchæus, attributing its virtue to the stay which Zacchæus made upon the tree! (Luke xix. 4.)

Fig trees are very common in Palestine, and flourish in a dry and sandy soil: although in our climate they are little more than shrubs, yet in the East they attain a considerable height, and some of them are capable of affording shelter to a considerable number of horsemen. The shade of the fig tree is very pleasant; and to *sit under it* is an emblem of security and peace. (Mic. iv. 4.) Fig trees begin to sprout at the time of the vernal equinox. (Luke xxi. 29, 30. Matt. xxiv. 32.) The fruit makes its appearance before the leaves and flowers, and the foliage expands about the end of March. The fig trees of Palestine are of three kinds: 1. The *Untimely fig*, which puts forth at the vernal equinox, and before it is ripe is called the *green fig*, but when it is ripe the *untimely fig*. (Sol. Song ii. 13. Jer. xxiv. 2. Hos. ix. 3.) It comes to maturity towards the end of June (Matt. xxi. 19. Mark xi. 13.), and in flavour surpasses the other kinds.—2. The *Summer or dry fig*: it appears about the middle of June and is ripe in August.—3. The *Winter fig*, which germinates in August, and does not ripen until about the end of November: it is longer and of a browner colour than the others. All figs, when ripe, but especially the untimely, fall spontaneously. (Nahum iii. 12.) The early figs are eaten, but some are dried in the sun, and preserved in masses which are called *cakes of figs* in 1 Sam. xxv. 18. xxx. 12. 1 Chron. xii. 40. It is well known that the fruit of these prolific trees always precedes the leaves: consequently, when Jesus Christ saw one of them in full vigour *having leaves* (Mark xi. 13.) he might, according to the common course of nature, very justly *look for fruit*, and *happily* find some boccores or early figs, if not some winter figs likewise upon it. The parable in Luke xiii. 6—9. is founded on the oriental mode of gardening; and the method of improving the palm (whose barrenness may be remedied in the way there mentioned,) is transferred to the fig tree.

Besides the palm trees above noticed, Jericho was celebrated for its fragrant balsam, mentioned in the Scriptures under the name of the *Balm of Gilead*. (Jer. viii. 22. xlv. 11. li. 8.) This balsam was mentioned by Strabo¹; and two plantations of it existed during the last war of the Jews with the Romans, for which both parties fought desperately, — the Jews that they might destroy them; — the Romans, that they might prevent them from destruction. Since the country has been under the government of the Turks, the balm of Gilead has ceased to be cultivated in Palestine, though it is found in different parts of Arabia and Egypt.²

But the Holy Land was eminently distinguished for its abundance of cattle, to the management and rearing of which the inhabitants chiefly applied themselves.³ The hilly country not only afforded them variety and plenty of pasture, but also of water, which descending thence, carried fertility into the low lands and vallies. The most celebrated pasture grounds were on each side of the river Jordan, besides those of Sharon, the plains of Lydda, Jamnia, and some others of less note. The breed of cattle reared in Bashan, and on the mountains of Gilcad and Carmel, were remarkable for their size, their strength, and fatness, to which there are frequent allusions in the Scriptures. The cattle of the Israelites comprised every sort of animal that afforded either food or clothing, or was applicable to other useful purposes, as sheep, oxen, goats, camels, and asses. The last-mentioned animals were of a more handsome form than are seen in our colder climate; hence they were chiefly used in travelling in this hilly country, even by persons of rank. Horses do not appear to have been in use, until after the establishment of the monarchy. The various rivers, especially the Jordan, the Lake of Tiberias, and the Mediterranean Sea, afforded great variety and plenty of fish, vast quantities of which were carried to Jerusalem, and according to Jerome, one of the gates of that city was from this circumstance denominated the *Fish-gate*. The Dead Sea furnished abundance of salt for curing their fish, for which purpose it was said to be superior to every other kind of salt.

Although we have no evidence that the Jews wrought any mines of iron or copper; yet the researches of modern travellers have ascertained that the mountains of Palestine contain iron-mines, particularly those whose summits and sides are occupied by the indus-

¹ Lib. xvi. vol. ii. p. 1085.

² For a particular account of the vegetable productions of the Holy Land, the reader is referred to the *Hiero-Botanicon* of Celsius (Upsalæ, 1745—1747, in two parts or vols. 8vo.); and for its zoology to the *Hierozoicon* of Bochart (folio, Lug. Bat. 1714, or in three vols. 4to. Lipsiæ, 1793 and following years). The reader, who may not be able to consult these elaborate works, will find much useful information concerning the plants and animals of the Holy Land, in Professor Paxton's *Illustrations of Scripture*, vol. i. part ii. pp. 231—623. first edit.; and particularly in Dr. Harris's *Natural History of the Bible*, already referred to.

³ "The whole of the scenery (says Dr. Richardson,) since we entered Palestine, amply confirms the language of Scripture, that this is a land flowing with milk and honey, — a land for flocks, and herds, and bees, and fitted for the residence of men, whose trade, like the patriarchs of old, was in cattle. *Travels along the Mediterranean, &c.*, vol. ii. p. 374.

trious Druses. Report says, that there was antiently a copper-mine at Aleppo, which (M. Volney is of opinion) must have long since been abandoned. These facts however, substantiate the accuracy of Moses in his description of the Promised Land, — as a *land whose stones are iron, and out of whose mountains thou mayest dig copper* (Deut. viii. 9.), as the Hebrew ought to be rendered, there being no such thing in nature, as a *brass-mine*.

In perusing the Scripture accounts of this highly-favoured country it ought to be considered that it was then inhabited by an industrious people, who knew how to improve every inch of their land, and by their good husbandry, had made even the most desert and barren places to yield some kind of production, so that the very rocks, which *now* appear quite naked, then yielded either corn, pulse or pasture. Every man had his own land to improve: and when, in addition to these facts, it is considered that a warm country will support more people than a cold one, the people in southern climates being satisfied with less food than in northern; and that the dominions of David and Solomon comprised a greater extent of territory than many apprehend; — we can be at no loss to account for the vast multitude of inhabitants¹, which the Scriptures assert that Palestine antiently supported, especially when their statements of its fertility and population are confirmed by the testimonies of profane historians.

Thus, Tacitus describes the climate as dry and sultry; the natives as strong and patient of labour; the soil, as fruitful, exuberant in its produce, like that of Italy, and yielding the palm and balm tree. Libanus or Lebanon, is stated to be the loftiest mountain in the country, and to rise to a great height, affording a grateful shade under its verdant groves, and even in the ardent heat of that sultry region as being covered at the top with perpetual snow.² Justin confirms the account of Tacitus, respecting the exuberant produce of Palestine, its beautiful climate, its palm and fragrant balsam trees.³ The palms of Judæa are celebrated by the elder Pliny⁴; and Ammianus Marcellinus commends the beauty of the country, and its large and handsome cities.⁵ But the most memorable testimony is that of Josephus the Jewish historian, which appears in various parts of his writings. Not to multiply unnecessary examples, we may state briefly, that after describing the boundaries of the regions of Upper and Lower Galilee, of Peræa and Samaria, he speaks of their fertility and produce in the following terms.

The two Galilees have always been able to make a strong resistance on all occasions of war: for the Galileans are inured to war from their infancy, and have always been very numerous. Their soil is universally rich, and fruitful, and full of plantations of all sorts of trees; so that its fertility invites the most slothful to take

¹ On the population of the Holy Land, see Michaelis's Commentaries on the Laws of Moses, vol. i. pp. 98—110.

² Taciti Historia. lib. v. c. 6.

³ Justin. Hist. Philipp. lib. xxxvi. c. 3.

⁴ Hist. Nat. Lib. xiii. c. 6.

⁵ Lib. xiv. c. 8. vol. i. p. 29. edit. Bipont.

pains in its cultivation. Accordingly the whole of it is cultivated by its inhabitants, and no part of it lies idle. Although the greater part of Peræa, he continues, is desert and rough, and much less disposed for the production of the milder sorts of fruits, yet in other parts it has a moist soil, and produces all kinds of fruits. Its plains are planted with trees of all sorts; the olive tree, the vine, and the palm trees are principally cultivated there. It is also sufficiently watered with torrents, that issue from the mountains, and with springs which never fail to run, even when the torrents fail them, as they do in the dog-days. Samaria is entirely of the same nature with Judæa. Both countries are composed of hills and vallies; they are moist enough for agriculture, and are very fertile. They have abundance of trees, and are full of autumnal fruit, both of that which grows wild, and also of that which is the effect of cultivation. They are not naturally watered by many rivers, but derive their chief moisture from rain water, of which they have no want. The waters of such rivers as they have, are exceedingly sweet; and in consequence of the excellence of their grass, the cattle reared in these countries yield more milk than do those of other places.¹

On the division of the land of Canaan, we are informed (Josh. xv. 20—62.) that not fewer than *one hundred and twelve walled cities* fell to the lot of the tribe of Judah. Many centuries afterwards, Josephus states that the regions of Samaria and Judæa were very full of people, which he notices as the greatest sign of their excellency²; that in the two Galilees the villages were extremely numerous and thickly inhabited; and that there also were great numbers of the larger cities, the smallest of which contained a population of fifteen thousand souls.³ From the two small provinces of Upper and Lower Galilee alone, Josephus collected an army of more than one hundred thousand men.⁴ These statements abundantly confirm the narratives of the sacred historian relative to the fertility and vast population of the Holy Land. Compare Numb. xi. 21. Judg. xx. 17. 1 Sam. xv. 4. 1 Chron. xxvii. 4—15. 2 Sam. xxiv. 9. and 2 Chron. xvii. 14—19. Nor are the testimonies less satisfactory, which have been given by Maundrell, Shaw, Hasselquist, and other modern travellers⁵, who have visited this country, and especially by Dr. Clarke⁶, who thus describes its appearance between Napolose or Sichem and Jerusalem:—“The road,” says he, “was mountainous, rocky and full of loose stones; yet the cultivation was every where marvellous: it afforded one of the most striking pictures of human industry which it is possible to behold. The limestone rocks and vallies of Judæa were entirely covered with plantations of figs, vines, and olive trees; not a single

¹ Josephus de Bell. Jud. lib. iii. c. 3. § 2, 3, 4.

² Ibid. lib. iii. c. 3. § 4.

³ Josephus de Bell. Jud. lib. iii. c. 3. § 2.

⁴ Ibid. lib. ii. c. 20. § 6.

⁵ The most important facts relative to the fertility of Palestine, recorded by Maundrell and Dr. Shaw, are collected by Dr. Macknight in discourses vi. and vii. prefixed to the first volume of his *Harmony*, and the testimonies of Hasselquist and others are collected by Mr. Harmer. (*Observations*, vol. i. pp. 243—250.)

⁶ *Travels*, vol. iv. pp. 283—285.

spot seemed to be neglected. The hills from their bases to their upmost summits, were entirely covered with gardens: all of these were free from weeds, and in the highest state of agricultural perfection. Even the sides of the most barren mountains had been rendered fertile by being divided into terraces, like steps rising one above another, whereon soil had been accumulated with astonishing labour. Under a wise and beneficial government, the produce of the Holy Land would exceed all calculation. Its perennial harvest; the salubrity of its air; its limpid springs; its rivers, lakes, and matchless plains; its hills and vales,—all these, added to the serenity of its climate, prove this land to be indeed *a field which the Lord hath blessed* (Gen. xxvii. 27.): *God hath given it of the dew of heaven, and the fatness of the earth, and plenty of corn and wine.*¹

Such being the state of the Holy Land, at least of that part of it which is properly cultivated, we can readily account for the vast population it antiently supported: and although this country, generally speaking, by no means corresponds with the statements we have of its former exuberant fertility and population, yet this is no contradiction to the narrative of the sacred writers. The devastations of the Holy Land by the Assyrians, Chaldees, Syrians, Romans, Saracens, the European crusaders, and Turks,—together with the oppressions of the inhabitants by the Turks in our own time (who not only do not encourage agricultural industry, but also extort to the uttermost from the husbandmen)², —to which are to be added the depredations of robbers, and the predatory incursions of the Arabs,—all concur satisfactorily to account for the present state of this country: and, so far is it from contradicting the assertions of the sacred writings, that it confirms their authority; for, in the event of the Israelites proving unfaithful to their covenant engagements with Jehovah, all these judgments were predicted and denounced against them (Lev. xxvi. 32. Deut. xxix. 22. *et seq.*); and the exact accomplishment of these prophecies affords a permanent comment on the declaration of the royal psalmist, that *God turneth a fruitful land into barrenness for the wickedness of them that dwell therein.* (Psal. cvii. 34.)

X. Yet lovely as Palestine confessedly was, its beauty and the comforts it afforded were not unalloyed: among the calamities of various kinds, which at different times visited the inhabitants, the pestilence, earthquakes, whirlwinds, the devastations of locusts,

¹ “In the north of Palestine,” says a recent traveller, “there are many beautiful and fertile spots, but not so in Judæa. The breath of Jehovah’s wrath seems in a peculiar manner, to have blasted and withered the territory of the daughter of Zion. What a change has been wrought in the land, once flowing with milk and honey!”—See the *Journal of the Rev. J. Connor*, (who was in Palestine in the spring of the year 1820,) in the Appendix to the Rev. Mr. Jowett’s *Christian Researches in the Mediterranean*, p. 441. (London, 1822, 8vo.)

² Volney has given some painfully interesting details on the oppression of the agricultural inhabitants of Palestine, by their barbarous masters, the Turks. *Travels in Egypt, &c.* pp. 341—347.

famines, volcanoes, and the pestilential Simoom, demand to be distinctly noticed.

1. *Palestine* is now, as it antiently was, often afflicted with the *Plague*; which makes its entrance from Egypt and the neighbouring countries. This tremendous scourge is frequently mentioned in the sacred writings. From the insidious manner in which it is first introduced into a country, it is perhaps termed the *pestilence that walketh in darkness*. (Psalm xci. 6.)

2. This region being mountainous and near the sea, is often shaken by *Earthquakes*¹, from which, however, Jerusalem seems to have suffered little if at all. (Psalm xlii. 2—5.) Sometimes these earthquakes were accompanied by land-slips, in which pieces of ground, lying on a declivity, are removed from their place. To these (which occasionally happen in the present day², and which are not uncommon in Barbary)³, the Psalmist alludes when he speaks of the *mountains being carried into the midst of the sea* (Psalm xlii. 2.), of their *skipping like rams, and the little hills like young sheep* (Psalm cxiv. 4. 6.); and also the prophet Isaiah (xxiv. 20.) when he says that *the earth shall reel to and fro like a drunkard, and shall be removed like a cottage*. These terrible concussions have supplied the sacred prophets and poets with numerous figures, by which they have represented the concussions and subversions of states and empires. See particularly Isa. xxix. 6. liv. 10. Jer. iv. 24. Hagg. ii. 6, 7. 22. Matt. xxiv. 7.

3. *Tornadoes* or *Whirlwinds*, followed by thunder, lightning, and rains, were also very frequent during the winter and cold seasons. Whirlwinds often preceded rain. In the figurative language of the Scriptures, these are termed the *commandment* and the *word* of God (Psalm cxlvii. 15. 18.)⁴; and as they are sometimes fatal to travellers who are overwhelmed in the deserts, the rapidity of their advance is elegantly employed by Solomon to shew the certainty as well as the suddenness of that destruction which will befall the impenitently wicked. (Prov. i. 27.) They are alluded to by Isaiah, as occurring in the deserts which border on the south of Judaea (Isa. xxi. 1.); and they appear to blow from various points of the compass. The prophet Ezekiel speaks of one that came from the north (Ezek. i. 4.); but more frequently it blows from the south (Job xxxvii. 9.), in which case it is generally attended with the most fatal consequences to the hapless traveller. Mr.

¹ The coast in general, and indeed the whole of Asia Minor, is still subject to earthquakes. In 1759 there happened one, which caused the greatest ravages, destroying upwards of 20,000 persons in the valley of Balbec. For three months the shocks of it terrified the inhabitants of Lebanon so much, that they abandoned their houses and dwelt under tents. (Volney's Travels, vol. i. p. 283.) In the autumn of 1822 another tremendous earthquake, or rather succession of earthquakes, desolated this region.

² See a description of one in the same work, vol. i. p. 278.

³ Shaw's Travels in Barbary, &c. vol. i. pp. 277, 278.

⁴ The Arabs, to this day, call them *good news* or *messengers*: and in the Koran they are termed the *sent* of God. c. 77. p. 477. of Sale's Translation, 4to. edit.

Morier, describing the whirlwinds of Persia, says, that they swept along the country in different directions, in a manner ~~very~~ terrific. "They carried away in their vortex sand, branches, and the stubble of the fields, and really appeared to make a communication between the earth and the clouds. The correctness of the imagery used by the prophet Isaiah when he alludes to this phenomenon, is very striking. *The whirlwind shall take them away as stubble.* (Isa. xl. 24.) *Chased as the chaff of the mountains before the wind, and like a rolling thing before the whirlwind.* (Isa. xvii. 13.) In the Psalms (lxxxiii. 13.) we read, *Make them like a wheel; as the stubble before the wind.* This is happily illustrated by the rotatory action of the whirlwind, which frequently impels a bit of stubble over a waste, just like a wheel set in a rapid motion."¹ From these phenomena, the sacred writers have borrowed many very expressive figures and allusions. Compare Psal. xviii. 8—15. xxix. 1—10. lv. 8. lxxxiii. 15. Isa. v. 30. viii. 7, 8. xi. 15. xxviii. 2. xxix. 6. Jer. xxiii. 19. Matt. vii. 25.

What tornadoes are on land, water-spouts are at sea, the vacuum being filled with a column of water, instead of earth, sand, &c. — To this phenomenon the Psalmist refers. (xlii. 7.)

4. Frequently the country was laid waste by vast bodies of migrating *Locusts*, whose depredations are one of the most terrible scourges with which mankind can be afflicted. By the prophet Joel (ii. 11.) they are termed the *army of the Lord*, from the military order which they appear to observe: disbanding themselves and encamping in the evening, and in the morning resuming their flight in the direction of the wind, unless they meet with food. (Nah. iii. 17. Prov. xxx. 27.) They fly in countless hosts (Jer. xli. 23. Judg. i. 5.), occupying, it is said, a space of two or three miles in length by a mile or a mile and a half in breadth; so as to obscure the sun, and bring a temporary darkness upon the land. (Joel ii. 2. 10. Exod. x. 15.) The noise made by them is compared to the noise of chariots (Joel ii. 5.): and wherever they settle, they darken the land. (Exod. x. 15.) If the weather be cold, they *encamp in the hedges*, until the sun rises, when they resume their progress (Nah. iii. 17.), climbing or creeping in perfect order. Regardless

¹ Morier's Second Journey, p. 202. Mr. Bruce, in his travels to discover the source of the Nile, was surprised by a whirlwind in a plain near that river, which lifted up a camel and threw it to a considerable distance, with such violence as to break several of its ribs; whirled himself and two of his servants off their feet, and threw them violently to the ground; and partly demolished a hut, the materials of which were dispersed all over the plain, leaving the other half standing. Mr. B. and his attendants were literally plastered with mud; if dust and sand had arisen with the whirlwind in the same proportion, instead of mud, they would inevitably have been suffocated (Travels, vol. vi. p. 346.); — a disaster which the late enterprising traveller Mr. Park with difficulty escaped, when crossing the great desert of Sahara in his way to explore the sources of the Niger. Destitute of provisions and water, his throat pained with thirst, and his strength nearly exhausted, he heard a wind sounding from the east, and instinctively opened his parched mouth to receive the drops of rain which he confidently expected, but it was instantly filled with sand drifted from the desert. So immense was the quantity raised into the air, that he was compelled to turn his face to the west to prevent suffocation, and continued to do so till it had passed. Park's Travels, p. 178.

every obstacle, they mount the walls of cities and houses, and enter the very apartments. (Joel ii. 7—9.) They devour every green herb, and strip the bark off every tree (Exod. x. 12. 15. Joel i. 4. 7. 10. 12. 16. 18. 20.), so as to render the land which before was as the garden of Eden, a desolate wilderness, as if it had been laid waste by fire. (Joel ii. 3.) The noise made by them, when committing their ravages, is compared to the crackling noise of fire among the dry stubble, or a mighty host set in battle array. (Ibid. 5.) So fearful are the effects of their devastations, that every one was filled with dismay (Ibid. 6.), and vainly attempted to prevent them from settling on their grounds by making loud shouts (Jer. li. 14.), as the Persian husbandmen¹, the inhabitants of Egypt², and the Nogai Tartars³ do to this day. What aggravates this tremendous calamity is, that when one host is departed, it is succeeded by a second, and sometimes even by a third or a fourth, by which every thing that has escaped the ravages of the preceding, is inevitably consumed by the last company. As Arabia is generally considered as the native country of these depredators, they were carried thence into Egypt by an east wind (Exod. x. 13.), and were removed by a westerly wind (19.) which blew from the Mediterranean Sea (that lay to the north-west of that country), and wafted them into the Red Sea, where they perished. On their departure from a country, they leave their fetid excrements behind them, which pollute the air, and myriads of their eggs deposited in the ground, whence issues in the following year a new and more numerous army. They are generally carried off by the wind into the sea, where they perish; and their dead bodies, putrefying on the shore, emit a most offensive and, (it is said) sometimes even fatal smell. The plague of locusts, predicted by Joel, entered Palestine from Hamath, one of the northern boundaries, whence they are called the *northern* army, and were carried away by the wind, some into the dreary plain on the coast of the *East* (or Dead) *Sea*, and others into the *utmost* (or Mediterranean) *Sea*. (Joel ii. 20.) These predatory locusts are larger than those which sometimes visit the southern parts of Europe, being five or six inches long, and as thick as a man's finger. From their heads being shaped like that of a horse, the prophet Joel says, that they *have the appearance of horses*; and on account of their celerity they are compared to horsemen on full gallop (ii. 4.), and also to horses prepared for battle. (Rev. ix. 7.) The locust has a large open mouth; and in its two jaws it has four incisive teeth, which traverse each other like scissors, and from their mechanism are calculated to grasp and cut every thing of which they lay hold. These teeth are so sharp and strong, that the prophet, by a bold figure, terms them the *teeth of a great lion*. (Joel i. 6.) In order to mark the certainty, variety, and extent of the depredations of the locusts, not fewer than eight or nine different appel-

¹ Morier's Second Journey, p. 98.

² Light's Travels, p. 56. Belzoni's Narrative, p. 197.

³ Baron De Tott's Memoirs, extracted in Harmer's Observations, vol. iii. n. 319.

lations, expressive of their nature, are given to them in the sacred writings.

Such are the Scripture accounts of this tremendous scourge, which are corroborated by every traveller who has visited the East. The quantity of these insects (to whose devastations Syria, Egypt, and Persia, together with the whole middle part of Asia, are subject) is incredible to any person who has not himself witnessed their astonishing numbers. Their numerous swarms, like a succession of clouds, sometimes extend a mile in length, and half as much in breadth, darken the horizon, and intercept the light of the sun. Should the wind blow briskly, so that the swarms are succeeded by others, they afford a lively idea of that similitude of the Psalmist (cix. 23.) of being *tossed up and down as the locusts*. Wherever they alight, the land is covered with them for the space of several leagues, and sometimes they form a bed six or seven inches thick. The noise which they make in browsing on the trees and herbage, may be heard at a great distance, and resembles that of an army foraging in secret, or the rattling of hail-stones: and, whilst employed in devouring the produce of the land, it has been observed, that they uniformly proceed one way, as regularly as a disciplined army upon its march. The Tartars themselves are a less destructive enemy than these little animals; one would imagine that fire had followed their progress. Fire itself, indeed, consumes not so rapidly. Wherever their myriads spread, the verdure of the country disappears as if a covering had been removed; trees and plants, stripped of their leaves and reduced to their naked boughs and stems, cause the dreary image of winter to succeed, in an instant, to the rich scenery of the spring. They have a government among them, similar to that of the bees and ants; and, when their king or leader rises, the whole body follow him, not one solitary straggler being left behind to witness the devastation. When these clouds of locusts take their flight, to surmount any obstacle, or to traverse more rapidly a desert soil, the heavens may literally be said to be obscured by them. Should the inhabitants dig pits and trenches, and fill them with water, or kindle fires of stubble therein, to destroy them, rank presses on rank, fills up the trenches, and extinguishes the fires. Where these swarms are extremely numerous, they climb over every thing in their way, entering the inmost recesses of the houses, adhering to the very clothes of the inhabitants, and infesting their food.¹ Pliny relates that, in some parts of Ethiopia, the inhabitants lived upon nothing but locusts salted, and dried in the smoke; and that the Parthians also accounted

Volneys' Travels in Egypt and Syria, vol. i. p. 28. Harmer's Observations, vol. iii. p. 319. Shaw's Travels, vol. i. pp. 340—343. Morin's Second Journey, p. 100. Sir Wm. Ouseley's Travels in Persia from 1810 to 1812, vol. i. pp. 195—200. (4to. London, 1819.) Mr. Dodwell has given an interesting account of the ravages of the in Greece; where, however, they are smaller than those of the Levant. See his Andropogon Tour, vol. i. pp. 214, 215.

them a pleasant article of food.¹ The modern Arabs catch great quantities of locusts, of which they prepare a dish by boiling them with salt, and mixing a little oil, butter, or fat; sometimes they toast them before a fire, or soak them in warm water, and without any other culinary process, devour almost every part except the wings. They are also said to be sometimes pickled in vinegar. The locusts which formed part of John the Baptist's food (Mark i. 6.), were these insects, and not the fruit of the locust tree.²

5. The devastations caused by the locusts, together with the absence of the former and latter rains, were generally followed by a scarcity of provisions, and not unfrequently by absolute *Famine*, which also often prevailed in besieged cities to such a degree, that the starving inhabitants have been reduced to the necessity of devouring not only unclean animals, but also human flesh. Compare Deut. xxviii. 22—42. 56, 57. 2 Sam. xxi. 1. 2 Kings vi. 25—28. xxv. 3. Jer. xiv. 15. xix. 9. xlii. 17. Lam. ii. 20. iv. 10. Ezek. v. 10—12. 16. vi. 12. vii. 15.

6. *Volcanoes*, though not generally apprehended to have existed in Palestine, unquestionably added their horrors to the other calamities with which Divine Providence chastised its inhabitants for their sins. Among the numerous interesting phenomena of nature described in the sacred volume, we not only meet with notices of *lava*, but also (Dr. Henderson conceives) of volcanic mountains, similar to those which abound in Iceland.³ The prophets appear to have derived some of their sublimest imagery from the tremendous phenomena of a volcanic eruption. Thus Nahum, describing the majesty of God, says, that *the mountains quake at him, and the hills MELT, and the earth is BURNED at his presence. His fury is POURED OUT LIKE FIRE, and the rocks are thrown down by him.* (Nah. i. 5, 6.) *Behold*, says Micah, *the Lord cometh forth out of his place, and will come down and tread upon the high places of the earth. And the MOUNTAINS SHALL BE MOLTEN under him, and the vallies shall be CLEFT AS WAX BEFORE THE FIRE, and as the waters that are poured down a steep place.* (Mic. i. 3, 4.) *O that thou wouldest rend the heavens*, says Isaiah, *that thou wouldest come down, that the MOUNTAINS MIGHT FLOW DOWN at thy presence. As when THE MELTING FIRE BURNETH, THE FIRE CAUSETH THE WATERS TO BOIL, to make thy name known to thine adversaries, that the nations may tremble at thy presence. When thou didst terrible things which we looked not for, thou camest down, THE MOUNTAINS FLOWED DOWN at*

¹ Pliny, Hist. Nat. lib. vi. c. 30. and lib. x. c. 28.

² Sir Wm. Ouseley's Travels, vol. i. p. 197. Dodwell's Tour, vol. i. p. 215. Dr. Della Cella's Travels from Barbary to the Western Frontier of Egypt, p. 78. Jackson's Account of the Empire of Morocco, pp. 51—54.

³ Travels in Iceland, vol. i. p. 10. Edinburgh, 1818, 8vo. In pp. 154—157. this intelligent traveller has offered several ingenious conjectures, (which do not admit of abridgment) respecting the origin of the appellation — *Valley of Siddim* — given to the tract of country on which the devoted cities stood, and also to shew that it is probable that there antiently were in the Holy Land, *Hot Springs*, similar to those which at this day exist in Iceland.

thy presence. (Isa. lxiv. 1—3.) And Jeremiah, evidently alluding to a volcano, says — *Behold, I am against thee, O DESTROYER MOUNTAIN, saith the Lord, which DESTROYEST all the earth. I will stretch out mine hand upon thee, and roll thee down from the rocks, and will make thee a BURNT mountain. And they shall not take of thee a stone for a corner, nor a stone for foundations; but thou shalt be DESOLATE for ever.* (Jer. li. 25, 26.) But the passage which, in Dr. Henderson's opinion, contains the most unequivocal reference to an eruption of lava, is that, in which Eliphaz insidiously reminds Job of the catastrophe which unexpectedly seized the abandoned inhabitants of the cities of the plain:

“Hast thou observed the ancient tract,
That was trodden by wicked mortals?
Who were arrested of a sudden,
Whose foundation is a *molten flood*.¹
Who said to God: Depart from us.
What can Shaddai do to us?”
“Though he had filled their houses with wealth.
(Far from me be the counsel of the wicked!)
The righteous beheld and rejoiced,
The innocent laughed them to scorn;
Surely their substance was carried away,
And their riches devoured *by fire*.”
JOB xxii. 15—20.

It is, indeed, commonly believed, that the destruction of Sodom and Gomorrah was effected by a shower of fire (or lightning) and brimstone miraculously produced in the region of the air, and Gen. xix. 24. has been adduced in support of the opinion. But the words, *The Lord rained brimstone and fire from the Lord out of heaven*, are susceptible of a very different interpretation: for, though lightning may be, (as it is in Scripture) with evident propriety, called *fire from heaven*, yet lightning can hardly be said to be *rained*. It is well known that in Scripture, every operation of nature is directly ascribed to God. All her diversified instruments are his servants, and what is performed by them is said to be done himself.

“The winds are his messengers;
His servants, flames of fire.”

Earthquakes, storms, inundations, drought, famine, pestilence, and war, are uniformly represented as coming from the ruler of the universe. When, therefore, the combustible matter in question is declared to proceed from Jehovah, we are in like manner to understand the historian as referring the awful catastrophe immediately to God, as the avenger of iniquity; though, in bringing it about,

¹ The received rendering (which is supported by the authority of the most distinguished modern critics), is — *whose foundation was overflown with a flood*; that is, with the universal Deluge: so that the rendering proposed by Dr. Henderson is not completely established. Dr. Hales, however, is of opinion, that the conclusion of this quotation from the Book of Job is an allusion to the final destruction of the wicked at the day of Judgment. See Vol. IV. p. 95, *infra*.

he might, as in other instances, have availed himself of natural causes. From the geological notices contained in the Bible, relative to the neighbourhood of the devoted cities, it would appear that it abounded with inflammable substances: and the observations of a late intelligent traveller, corroborate the Scripture narrative in a most striking manner. M. Badhia (better known by his assumed name of Ali Bey), in his way to Damascus, thus describes a volcanic desert traversed by him, which lies between the river Jordan and that city: — “The Phlegæan fields, and all that can present an idea of volcanic destruction, form but a feeble image of the frightful country through which I passed. From the bridge of Jacob¹ to Sassa, the whole ground is composed of nothing but *lava, basaltes, and other volcanic productions*; all is black, porous, or carious; it was like travelling in the infernal regions. Besides these productions, which cover the country, either in detached masses or in large strata, the surface of the ground is entirely covered *with loose volcanic stones*, from three to four inches in circumference to a foot in diameter, all equally black, porous, or carious; as if they *had just come out of the crater*. But it is particularly at the approaches to Sassa, that the traveller meets with groups of crevices, and volcanic mounds, of so frightful a size that he is seized with horror, which is increased if he allows his imagination to wander to the period when these masses were hurled forth with violence from the bowels of the earth. There are evident signs *that all this country was formerly filled with volcanoes, for we beheld several small craters in traversing the plain.*”²

From these facts, and from the geological notices occurring in the Scriptures respecting the devoted cities, it is highly probable that the plain in which they stood was at some earlier period subjected to volcanic revolutions. Nothing farther then was necessary, than to set on fire the bitumen, sulphur, &c. that was in the bowels of the earth, which ravaging with violent fury, an earthquake ensued, and vent being given to the subterraneous elements, a torrent of melted matter was poured forth, that, descending into the plain, carried destruction to its inhabitants, cities, villages, fields, and whatever came in its way. The quantities of sulphur, pumice, and ashes, poured by the volcano to an immense height in the air, and falling from that elevation, might, with strict propriety, be said to have been *rained from heaven*. In allusion to this catastrophe, God is said to *rain* on the wicked, hot ashes, fire, and brimstone, (Psal. xi. 6.)³ That an inundation of lava overtook those cities,

¹ The bridge alluded to is known by the name of *Cuntara Yacoub*, or *Jacob's Bridge*: it is of considerable antiquity, and consists of three pointed arches. The river is, in this place about 64 feet wide, and does not appear to be very deep; its current is rapid and boisterous, and the water good, but *warm*. Travels of Ali Bey, vol. ii. pp. 261, 262.

² Travels of Ali Bey, vol. ii. p. 263.

³ Mr. Holm, in an account of the eruption of the Skaptà volcano in Iceland, quoted by Dr. Henderson, says, “The whole atmosphere was filled with sand, dust, and brimstone, so thick as to occasion a continual darkness. The pumice which fell on the vil-

besides the fiery sulphureous shower described by Moses, is stated in the most express terms, in the passage quoted from Job. Their inhabitants were *arrested* by its torrents. It surrounded their habitations, and cut off all way of escape, *carried before it* their substance, *devoured* their riches with its raging flames, and so completely laid waste the spot where they dwelt, that nothing now remained but a *stream of melted matter*. The same fact is obviously implied in the description of the circumstances connected with Lot's escape. Why was he prohibited from lingering in any part of the low land, if not because he would there be exposed to the pestilential volcanic effluvia and to the lava? And what reason can be assigned for his obtaining leave to stop in Zoar; but its lying at some distance from the spot where the lava began to act, as likewise on an elevation whence he could survey the approaching ruin, and retire before the stream reached that place? We accordingly find; that however desirous he was to stay there at first, he quitted it before night, for a still more elevated and safe retreat. *And Lot went up out of Zoar, and dwelt in the MOUNTAIN, for he feared to dwell in Zoar.* (Gen. xix. 30.) How natural is the incrustation of his wife on the same hypothesis? Remaining in a lower part of the valley, and looking with a wistful eye towards Sodom, she was surrounded, ere she was aware, by the lava, which rising and swelling, at length reached her, and (while the volcanic effluvia deprived¹ her of life) incrustated her where she stood; so that being, as it were, embalmed by the salso-bituminous mass, she became a conspicuous beacon and admonitory example to future generations. The power of this asphaltic substance in preserving from corruption, is evident, from its being employed by the Egyptians for embalming their mummies.² She is said to have been converted into a pillar of salt, on account of the quantity of that substance which appeared in the crust, and its abundance in those regions is notorious, both from sacred and profane history: so much so, that the lake which now fills the caverns made by the earthquake, has, among other names, that of the "Salt Sea."³

In confirmation of the conflagration of the ground about Sodom and Gomorrah, we may cite the description in Deut. xxix. 22. *All the land BURNING with brimstone and salt, LIKE THE OVERTHROW OF SODOM AND GOMORRAH.* Nor was the fire, thus kindled, extinguished for ages; but continued to send forth flames, smoke, bitumen, &c. in the first century of the Christian æra, as we learn

lages being *red hot*, did considerable damage. Along with the pumice stones, there fell a great quantity of a dirty substance like pitch, rolled up sometimes in the form of small balls, and sometimes like rings or garlands. The falling of these hot substances was attended with great mischief, as they totally destroyed all manner of vegetation, that they came near." Henderson's Iceland, vol. i. p. 152.

¹ Lot's wife is not the only person who has suffered by proximity to volcanic effluvia. The elder Pliny perished in this manner. See the account of his death in the epitaph of his nephew, the younger Pliny, lib. v. ep. 16.

² *Died. Sc. Bib. Hist.* lib. xix. c. 109.

³ Henderson's Iceland, vol. i. pp. 153, 154.

from the testimony of Josephus.¹ To these eruptions of flame the apostle ~~Paul~~ appears to allude in the seventh verse of his epistle: and *antient geographers*, as well as modern travellers; have attested the existence of volcanoes in this once highly favoured country. Thus, the Koran, adverting to the destruction of Sodom, says that "a terrible storm from heaven assailed them, at sun-rise, and we turned the city upside down; and we rained on them stones of baked clay²," that is, *lava*, and other volcanic matters. The oriental geographer Ebn Haukal, (who travelled in the tenth century,) says, "The land of the tribe of Lot is called *Aredz al Moukloubah* (the land turned upside down). Neither corn, nor herbage, nor cattle, are found here; the ground is black; and stones are seen scattered about, which one would imagine to be the stones showered down on that wicked race."³ The late Mr. Volney states that the whole south of Syria is volcanic⁴; and volcanic vestiges were traced by Mr. Buckingham, in the year 1816.⁵

7. But the greatest of all the calamities that ever visited this highly-favoured country, is the pestilential blast, by the Arabs termed the *Sam* wind, by the Persians, *Samoun*, by the Turks *Simoom*, or *Samiel*, and by the prophet Jeremiah a *dry wind of the high places in the wilderness*. (Jer. iv. 11.) It blows in Persia, Arabia, and the deserts of Arabia, during the months of June, July, and August; in Nubia during March and April, and also in September, October, and November. It rarely lasts more than seven or eight minutes, but so poisonous are its effects, that it instantly suffocates those who are unfortunate enough to inhale it, particularly if it overtake them when standing upright. Thevenot mentions such a wind, which in 1658 suffocated *twenty thousand* men in one night; and another, which in 1655 suffocated *four thousand* persons. As the principal stream of this pestilential blast always moves in a line, about twenty yards in breadth, and twelve feet above the surface of

¹ De Bell. Jud. lib. iv. c. 8. § 4.

² Sale's translation of the Koran, p. 213. See also p. 184. 4to. edit.

³ Sir William Ouseley's Translation of the "Oriental Geography of Ebn Haukal." p. 46. London, 1800. 4to.

⁴ The following is Volney's description of the modern state of this district: — "The south of Syria, that is, the hollow through which the Jordan flows, is a country of volcanoes: the bituminous and sulphureous sources of the lake Asphaltites, the lava, the pumice stones thrown upon its banks, and the hot baths of Tabaria," (the antient Tiberias) "demonstrate that this valley has been the seat of a subterraneous fire, which is not yet extinguished. Clouds of smoke are often observed to issue from the lake, and new crevices to be formed upon its banks. If conjectures in such cases were not too liable to error, we might suspect that the whole valley has been formed only by a violent sinking of a country which formerly poured the Jordan into the Mediterranean. It appears certain, at least, that the catastrophe of five cities destroyed by fire, must have been occasioned by the irruption of a volcano then burning. Strabo expressly says, 'that the tradition of the inhabitants of the country (that is, of the Jews themselves) was, that formerly the valley of the lake was peopled by thirteen flourishing cities, and that they were swallowed up by a volcano.' (Geographia, lib. xvi. p. 1087. edit. Oxon.) This account seems to be confirmed by the quantities of ruins still found by travellers on the western border. These eruptions have long since ceased; but earthquakes, which usually succeed them, still continue to be felt at intervals in this country." Travels in Egypt and Syria, vol. i. pp. 281, 282.

⁵ Buckingham's Travels, pp. 443. 448.

the earth, travellers in the desert, when they perceive its approach, throw themselves on the ground, with their faces close to the burning sands, and wrap their heads in their robes, or in a piece of carpet, till the wind has passed over them. The least mischief which it produces is the drying up their skins of water, and thus exposing them to perish with thirst in the deserts. When this destructive wind advances, which it does with great rapidity, its approach is indicated by a redness in the air; and, when sufficiently near to admit of being observed, it appears like a haze, in colour resembling the purple part of the rainbow, but not so compressed or thick. When travellers are exposed to a second or third attack of this terrible blast, it produces a desperate kind of indifference for life, and an almost total prostration of strength. Camels and other animals instinctively perceive its approach, and bury their mouths and nostrils in the ground. The effects of this blast on the bodies of those whom it destroys are peculiar. At first view, its victims appear to be asleep: but if an arm or leg be smartly shaken or lifted up, it separates from the body, which soon after becomes black.¹ In Persia, in the district of Dashtistan, a *sam* or *simoom* blew during the summer months, which so totally burnt up all the corn (then near its maturity), that no animal would eat a blade of it, or touch any of its grain.² The image of *corn blasted before it be grown up*, used by the sacred historian in 2 Kings xix. 26., was most probably taken from this or some similar cause. The Psalmist evidently alludes (Psal. ciii. 15, 16.) to the desolating influence of the simoom, which was unquestionably the blast that destroyed the army of Sennacherib in one night. (2 Kings xix. 7. 35.)

J Bruce's Travels, vol. vi. pp. 462, 463. 484. Harmer's Observations, vol. i. pp. 94—96. Sir R. K. Porter's Travels in Georgia, Persia, &c. vol. ii. p. 230.

² Morier's Second Journey, p. 43.

PART II.

POLITICAL ANTIQUITIES OF THE JEWS.

CHAPTER I.

DIFFERENT FORMS OF GOVERNMENT FROM THE PATRIARCHAL
TIMES TO THE BABYLONIAN CAPTIVITY.

I. *Patriarchal Government.*—II. *Government under Moses—a Theocracy;—its nature and design.*—1. *Notices of the Heads or Princes of tribes and families.*—2. *Of the Jethronian Prefects or Judges appointed by Moses.*—3. *Of the Senate or Council of Seventy Assessors.*—4. *Scribes.*—III. *Government of the Judges.*—IV. *Regal Government instituted;—the Functions and Privileges of the Kings;—Inauguration of the Kings;—Scriptural Allusions to the Courts of Sovereigns and Princes explained.*—V. *Revenues of the Kings of Israel.*—VI. *Magistrates under the Monarchy.*—VII. *Officers of the Palace.*—VIII. *The Royal Harem.*—IX. *Promulgation of Laws.*—X. *Schism between the twelve tribes;—the Kingdoms of Israel and Judah founded;—their Duration and End.*

I. **O**F the forms of Government which obtained among mankind from the earliest ages to the time of Moses, we have but little information communicated in the Scriptures. The simplicity of manners which then prevailed would render any complicated form of government unnecessary; and accordingly we find that the patriarchs exercised the chief power and command over their families, children, and domestics, without being responsible to any superior authority. Such was the government of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob. So long as they resided in the land of Canaan, they were subject to no foreign power, but tended their flocks and herds wherever they chose to go (Gen. xiii. 6—12.), and vindicated their wrongs by arms whensoever they had sustained any injury. (Gen. xiv.) They treated with the petty kings who reigned in different parts of Palestine as their equals in dignity, and concluded treaties with them in their own right. (Gen. xiv. 13. 18—24. xxi. 22—32. xxvi. 16. 27—33. xxxi. 44—54.)

The patriarchal power was a sovereign dominion: so that parents may be considered as the first kings, and children the first subjects. They had the power of disinheriting their children (Gen. xlix. 3, 4. 1 Chron. v. 1.), and also of punishing them with death (Gen. xxxviii. 24.) or of dismissing them from home without assigning any rea-

son. (Gen. xxi. 14.) Further, the patriarchs. could pronounce a solemn blessing or curse upon their children, which at that time was regarded as a high privilege and of great consequence. Thus Noah cursed his son Canaan (Gen. ix. 25.); Isaac blessed Jacob (Gen. xxvii. 28, 29. 33.); and Jacob blessed his sons. (Gen. xlix.) On the decease of the father, the eldest son, by a natural right of succession inherited the paternal power and dominion, which in those days was one of the rights of primogeniture. To this right the sacerdotal dignity, in the first ages, seems to have been annexed; so that the heads of families not only possessed a secular power, but also officiated as priests in the families to which they belonged. (Gen. viii. 20. xii. 7, 8. xxxv. 1—3.)

Although the sons of Jacob exercised, each, the supreme power in his own family, during their father's life (Gen. xxxviii. 24.), yet the latter appears to have retained some authority over them. (Gen. xlii. 1—4. 37, 38. xliii. 1—13. l. 15—17.) Afterwards, however, as the posterity of Jacob increased, in Egypt, it became necessary to have magistrates or governors, invested with more extensive authority; these are termed *Elders* (Exod. iii. 16.), being probably chosen on account of their age and wisdom. The *Shoterim* or "officers of the children of Israel" (Exod. v. 14, 15. 19.), have been conjectured to be a kind of magistrates elected by them: but, from the context of the sacred historian, they rather appear to have been appointed by the Egyptians, and placed over the Israelites in order to oversee their labour.

II. On the departure of the Israelites from the land of their oppressors, under the guidance of Moses, Jehovah was pleased to institute a new form of government, which has been rightly termed **THEOCRACY**; the supreme legislative power being exclusively vested in God or in his ORACLE, who alone could enact or repeal laws. The Hebrew government appears not only designed to subserve the common and general ends of all good governments;—viz. the protection of the property, liberty, safety, and peace of the several members of the community (in which the true happiness and prosperity of states will always consist); but also to set apart the Hebrews or Israelites as a *holy people to Jehovah, and a kingdom of priests*. For thus Moses is directed to tell the children of Israel, *Ye have seen what I did unto the Egyptians, and how I bore you on eagles' wings, and brought you unto myself. Now therefore if ye will hear my voice indeed, and keep my covenant, then ye shall be a peculiar treasure unto me above all people; for all the earth is mine, and ye shall be unto me a kingdom of priests and an holy nation.* (Exod. xix. 3, 4, 5, 6.) We learn what this covenant was in a further account of it. *Ye stand this day all of you before the Lord your God, your captains of your tribes, your elders and your officers, and all the men of Israel; that you should enter into covenant with the Lord thy God and into his oath which the Lord thy God maketh with thee that he may establish thee to day for a people unto himself, and he may be unto thee a God, as he hath said unto thee, and as he hath*

sworn unto thy fathers, to Abraham, Isaac, and to Jacob: for ye know, adds Moses, how we have dwelt in the land of Egypt, and how we came through the nations which ye passed by; and ye have seen their abominations and their idols, wood and stone, silver and gold, which were among them, lest there should be among you, man, or woman, or family, or tribe, whose heart turneth away this day from the Lord our God to go and serve the Gods of these nations. (Deut. xxix. 10—18.)

From these passages, it is evident that the fundamental principle of the Mosaic Law was the maintenance of the doctrine and worship of one true God, and the prevention, or rather the proscription, of polytheism and idolatry. The covenant of Jehovah with the Hebrew people, and their oath by which they bound their allegiance to Jehovah, their God and King, was, that they should receive and obey the laws which he should appoint as their supreme governor, with a particular engagement to keep themselves from the idolatry of the nations round about them, whether the idolatry they had seen while they dwelt in the land of Egypt, or that which they had observed in the nations by which they passed into the promised land. In keeping this allegiance to Jehovah, as their immediate and Supreme Lord, they were to expect the blessings of God's immediate and particular protection in the security of their liberty, peace, and prosperity, against all attempts of their idolatrous neighbours; but if they should break their allegiance to Jehovah, or forsake the covenant of Jehovah, by going and serving other gods, and worshipping them, then they should forfeit these blessings of God's protection, and the anger of Jehovah should be kindled against the land, to bring upon it all the curses that are written in the book of Deuteronomy. (xxix. 25—27.) The substance then of this solemn transaction between God and the Israelites (which may be called the original contract of the Hebrew government) was this:—If the Hebrews would voluntarily consent to receive Jehovah as their lord and king, to keep his covenant and laws, to honour and worship him as the one true God, in opposition to all idolatry; then, though God as sovereign of the world rules over all the nations of the earth, and all nations are under the general care of his providence, he would govern the Hebrew nation by peculiar laws of his particular appointment, and bless it with a more immediate and particular protection; he would secure to them the invaluable privileges of the true religion, together with liberty, peace, and prosperity, as a favoured people above all other nations.¹ This constitution, it will be observed, is enforced chiefly by temporal sanctions, and with singular wisdom, for temporal blessings and evils were at that time the common and prevailing incitements to idolatry; but by thus taking them into the Hebrew constitution, as rewards to obedience and

¹ Lowman on the Civil Government of the Hebrews, pp. 8—10.. See also Dr. Graves's lectures on the Pentateuch, vol. ii. pp. 141—185. for some masterly observations on the introduction of temporal sanctions into the Mosaic law.

punishments for disobedience, they became motives to continuance in the true religion, instead of encouragements to idolatry.¹

In the Theocracy of the Hebrews, the laws were given to them by God, through the mediation of Moses, and they were to be of perpetual force and obligation so long as their polity subsisted. The judges by whom these laws were administered, were represented as holy persons, and as sitting in the place of God. (Deut. i. 17. xix. 7.) These judges were usually taken from the tribe of Levi; and the chief expounder of the law was the high priest. In this there was a singular propriety; for the Levites, being devoted to the study of the law, were (as will be shewn in a subsequent page) the *literati* among the Israelites. In difficult cases of law, however, relating both to government and war, God was to be consulted by Urim and Thuminim; and in matters, which concerned the welfare of the state, God frequently made known his will by prophets whose mission was duly attested, and the people were bound to hearken to their voice. In all these cases, Jehovah appears as sovereign king, ruling his people by his appointed ministers.²

A subordinate design of this constitution of the Hebrew government was, the prevention of intercourse between the Israelites and foreign nations. The prevalence of the most abominable idolatry among those nations, and the facility with which the Israelites had, on more than one occasion, adopted their idolatrous rites, during their sojourning in the wilderness, rendered this seclusion necessary, in order to secure the fundamental principle of the Mosaic law above mentioned: and many of the peculiar laws will, on this principle, be found both wisely and admirably adapted to secure this design.³

The form of the Hebrew republic was unquestionably democratical; its head admitted of change as to the name and nature of his office, and at certain times it could even subsist without a general head. When Moses promulgated his laws, he convened the whole congregation of Israel, to whom he is repeatedly said to have *spoken*, but as he could not possibly be heard by six hundred thousand men, we must conclude that he only addressed a certain number of persons who were deputed to represent the rest of the Israelites. Accordingly in Numb. i. 16. these delegates or representatives are termed קְרוּאֵי הָעֵדָה (KERUAY HOËDAH), that is, *those wont to be called the convention*, in our version called the *renowned of the congregation*: and in Numb. xvi. 2. they are denominated קְרוּאֵי מוֹעֵד נְשֵׂאֵי עֵדָה (NESIAY EDAY KERUAY MUOED), that is, *chiefs of the community*, or congregation, *that are called to the convention*, in our version termed, *famous in the congregation, men of renown*. By comparing Deut. xxix. 10. with Josh. xxiii. 2. it appears that these representatives were the heads of *tribes or families*, and *judges* and

¹ Michaelis's Commentaries on the Laws of Moses, vol. i. pp. 190—196.

² Ibid.

³ Ibid. vol. i. pp. 202—225. "J. Lowman (Civil Government of the Hebrews, pp. 17—31.) has illustrated the wisdom of this second design of the Jewish theocracy by several pertinent examples."

officers; and Michaelis is of opinion that, like the members of our British House of Commons, they acted in the plenitude of their own power, without taking instruction from their constituents.¹

1. HEADS OR PRINCES OF TRIBES AND FAMILIES.—All the various branches of Abraham's descendants, like the antient Germans or the Scottish clans, kept together in a body according to their tribes and families; each tribe forming a lesser commonwealth, with its own peculiar interests, and all of them at last uniting into one great republic.² The same arrangement, it is well known, obtained among the Israelites, who appear to have been divided into twelve great tribes, previously to their departure from Egypt. By Moses, however, they were subdivided into certain greater families, which are called *משפחות* (*MISHPACHOTH*) or *families*, by way of distinction, and *בתי אבות* (*BATEY ABOTH*) or *houses of fathers* (Num. i. 2. Josh. vii. 14.); each of whom, again, had their heads, which are sometimes called *heads of houses of fathers*, and sometimes simply *heads*. These are likewise the same persons, who in Josh. xxiii. 2. and xxiv. 1. are called *Elders*. (Compare also Deut. xix. 12. and xxi. 1—9.) It does not appear in what manner these heads or elders of families were chosen, when any of them died. The princes of tribes do not seem to have ceased with the commencement, at least, of the monarchy: from 1 Chron. xxvii. 16—22. it is evident that they subsisted in the time of David; and they must have proved a powerful restraint upon the power of the king.

It will now be readily conceived how the Israelitish state might have subsisted not only without a king, but even occasionally without that magistrate who was called a *Judge*, although we read of no supreme council of the nation. Every tribe had always its own chief magistrate, who may not inaptly be compared to the lords lieutenants of our British counties; subordinate to them, again, were the heads of families, who may be represented as their deputy lieutenants: and, if there were no *general* ruler of the whole people, yet there were twelve smaller commonwealths, who in certain cases united together, and whose general convention would take measures for their common interest. In many cases particular tribes acted as distinct and independent republics, not only when there was neither king nor judge, but even during the times of the kings. Instances of wars being carried on by one or more particular tribes, both before and after the establishment of the regal government, may be seen in Josh. xvii. 15—17. Judg. iv. 10. and xviii—xx. 1 Chron. v. 18—23. 41—43. It appears from 1 Chron. xxiii. 11. that a certain number of persons was necessary to constitute a family, and to empower such a family to have a representative head: for it is there said that the four sons of Shimei had not a numerous progeny, and

¹ Commentaries on the Laws of Moses, vol. i. p. 231.

² In this manner were the Ishmaelites governed by twelve princes according to the number of Ishmael's sons (Gen. xxv. 16.); and the Bedouins their descendants have always preserved some traces of this patriarchal government. Their families continue together; and under the name of *Emir*, one is prince among people, who are all his kindred within a certain degree of affinity. Ibid. p. 232.

were therefore reckoned only as one family. Hence we may explain why, according to Micah v. 2., Bethlehem may have been too small to be reckoned among the families of Judah. It is impossible to ascertain, at this distance of time, what number of individuals was requisite to constitute a house or family; but probably the number was not always uniform.¹

2. The JUDGES, who were appointed by Moses, had also a right, by virtue of their office, to be present in the *congregation*, or convention of the state. After the departure of the Israelites from Egypt, Moses, for some time, was their sole judge. Jethro, his father-in-law, observing that the daily duties of this office were too heavy for him, suggested to him (subject to the approbation of Jehovah) the institution of *Judges* or rulers, of *tens*, of *fifties*, of *hundreds*, and of *thousands*, who determined every affair of little importance among themselves, but brought the *hard causes* to Moses. (Exod. xviii. 14—26.) Of the judges of *tens*, therefore, there must have been *sixty thousand*; of the judges of *fifties*, *twelve thousand*; of the judges of *hundreds*, *six thousand*; and of the judges of *thousands*, *six hundred*. These Judges, or Jethronian prefects (as they have been called), seem to have been a sort of justice of the peace in several divisions, probably taken from the military division of an host into thousands, hundreds, fifties, and tens; this was a model proper for them as an army marching, and not unsuitable to their settlement as tribes and families, in a sort of counties, hundreds, and tithings. Perhaps our old Saxon constitution of *sheriffs* in *counties*, *hundredors* or centgraves in *hundreds*, and *deciners* in *decenaries*, may give some light to this constitution of Moses. Some of our legal antiquaries have thought that those constitutions of the Saxons were taken from these laws of Moses, introduced by Alfred, or by his direction.² It is not probable, that in the public deliberative assemblies the whole sixty thousand judges of tens had seats and voices. Michaelis conjectures that only those of hundreds, or even those only of thousands, are to be understood, when mention is made of judges in the Israelitish conventions.

But, after the establishment of the Hebrews in the land of Canaan, as they no longer dwelt together, in *round numbers*, Moses ordained that judges should be appointed in every city (Deut. xvi. 18.), and it should seem that they were chosen by the people. In succeeding ages these judicial offices were filled by the Levites, most probably because they were the persons best skilled in the law of the Hebrews. (See 1 Chron. xxiii. 4. xxvi. 29—32. 2 Chron. xix. 8—11. xxxiv. 13.)

3. During the sojourning of the Israelites in the wilderness, Moses established a council or SENATE of seventy, to assist him in the government of the people. The Jewish rabbinical writers, who have exercised their ingenuity in conjecturing why the number was

¹ Michaelis's Commentaries, vol. i. p. 244.

² Bacon on English Government, part i. p. 70. Lowman's Civil Government of the Hebrews, p. 162.

limited to seventy, have pretended that this was a permanent and supreme court of judicature; but as the sacred writers are totally silent concerning such a tribunal, we are authorised to conclude that it was only a temporary institution. After their return from the Babylonish captivity, it is well known that the Jews did appoint a sanhedrin or council of seventy at Jerusalem, in imitation of that which Moses had instituted. In the New Testament, very frequent mention is made of this supreme tribunal, of which an account will be found in a subsequent chapter of this volume.

4. Among the persons who appear in the Israelitish congregation or diet (as Michaelis terms it), in addition to those already mentioned, we find the שוטרִים (SHOTERIM) or scribes. It is evident that they were different from the Jethronian prefects or judges; for Moses expressly ordained that they should not only appoint judges in every city, but also *shoterim* or scribes. Officers of this description, we have already seen¹, were among the Israelites, during their bondage in Egypt. What their functions were, it is now difficult to ascertain. Michaelis conjectures with great probability, that they kept the genealogical tables of the Israelites, with a faithful record of births, marriages, and deaths; and that to them was assigned the duty of apportioning the public burthens and services on the people individually. Under the regal government, these scribes were generally taken from the tribe of Levi. (1 Chron. xxiii. 4. 2 Chron. xix. 8—11. and xxxiv. 13.) In Deut. xxix. 10. xxxi. 28. Josh. viii. 33. and xxiii. 2. we find them as representatives of the people in the diets, or when they entered into covenant with God. In time of war they were charged with the duty of conveying orders to the army (Deut. xx. 5.); and in 2 Chron. xxvi. 11. we meet with a scribe, who appears to have been what is now termed the *muster-master-general*.²

III. On the death of Moses, the command of the children of Israel was confided to JOSHUA, who had been his minister (Exod. xxiv. 13. Josh. i. 1;) and under whom the land of Canaan was subdued, and divided agreeably to the divine injunctions; but his office ceasing with his life, the government of Israel was committed to certain supreme magistrates termed JUDGES. Their dignity was, for life; but their office was not hereditary, neither was their succession constant. There also were anarchies, or intervals of several years' continuance, during which the Israelites groaned under the tyranny of their oppressors, and had no governors. But though God himself did regularly appoint the judges of the Israelites, the people nevertheless, on some occasions elected him who appeared to them most proper to deliver them from their immediate oppression: thus Jephthah was chosen by the Israelites beyond Jordan. As, however, it frequently happened that the oppressions which rendered the assistance of judges necessary, were not felt equally over all Israel, so the power of those judges, who were elected in

¹ See p. 77. *supra*.

² Michaelis's Commentaries, vol. i. pp. 249—251.

order to procure their deliverance from such servitudes, did not extend over all the people, but only over that district which they had delivered. Thus, Jephthah did not exercise his authority on this side Jordan, neither did Barak exercise his judicial power beyond that river. In many cases, particular tribes acted as distinct and independent republics, not only when there was neither king nor judge, but even in the times of the kings. In Josh. xvii. 14—18. Judg. iv. 10. and Judg. xviii. xix. xx. we read of wars which were carried on by particular tribes. But the most remarkable example perhaps is in 1 Chron. v. 18—22. where the two tribes and a half beyond Jordan,—even during the reign of Saul,—carried on a very important war by themselves; in which, indeed, the rest of the people of Israel took so little share, that Samuel has not so much as noticed it in Saul's history, though it was a far more splendid event, than all his military achievements put together. In 1 Chron. iv. 41—43. we read in like manner, of wars carried on by the single tribe of Simeon, in the reign of Hezekiah.

The authority of the judges was not inferior to that, which was afterwards exercised by the kings: it extended to peace and war. They decided causes without appeal; but they had no power to enact new laws, nor to impose new burthens upon the people. They were protectors of the laws, defenders of religion, and avengers of crimes, particularly of idolatry, which was high treason against Jehovah their Sovereign. Further, these judges were without pomp or splendour, and destitute of guards, train, or equipage: unless indeed their own wealth might enable them to make an appearance suitable to their dignity. Their income or revenue arose solely from presents. This form of administration subsisted from Joshua to Saul, during a period of about 339 years.

IV. At length the Israelites, weary of having God for their king, and provoked by the misconduct of the sons of the judge and prophet Samuel, who in his old age had associated them with himself for the administration of affairs, desired a king to be set over them, *to judge them like all the nations* (1 Sam. viii. 5.), thus undesignedly fulfilling the designs of the Almighty, who had ordained that in the fulness of time the Messiah should be born of a royal house. Such a change in their government Moses foresaw, and accordingly prescribed certain laws for the direction of their future sovereigns. (Deut. xvii. 14—20.) The right of choice was left to the people, but with this limitation, that they must never elect a foreigner. This was a patriotic law, but it did not apply to the case of the nation being at any time subjected, by force of arms, to a foreign prince; though the Pharisees afterwards so explained it. Further, the Israelites were on no account to appoint any one as their king, who was not chosen by God; but this did not extend to their electing every individual king: for, so long as the reigning family did not violate the fundamental laws of the theocracy, they would continue to possess the throne, but if they tyrannised, they would forfeit it. With regard to the external qualifications which the Jews appear

to have demanded in their kings:—comeliness of person and tallness of stature seem to have been the principal requisites. Thus, although Saul was constituted King of Israel by the special appointment of God, yet it appears to have been no inconsiderable circumstance in the eyes of the people that he was a *choice young man and goodly*, and that there was *not among the children of Israel, a goodlier person than he: from the shoulders and upwards he was higher than any of the people.* (1 Sam. ix. 2.) And therefore Samuel said to the people, when he presented Saul to them: *See ye him whom the LORD hath chosen that there is none like him among all the people.* (1 Sam. x. 24.) Hence, also, David is said to have been *ruddy, withal of a beautiful countenance, and goodly to look to.* (1 Sam. xvi. 12.) The people of the East seem to have had a regard to these personal qualities in the election of their kings, in addition to those of strength, courage, and fortitude of mind; and it was such a king as their neighbours had, whom the Israelites desired.

The kings were prohibited from multiplying horses¹; nor were they allowed to take many wives. No law of Moses, however, was less observed than this. They were likewise forbidden to collect great quantities of gold and silver; lest they should have in their hands the means of making themselves rich. In order that they might not be ignorant of religion and of the laws of the Israelites, they were enjoined to have by them a copy of the law, carefully taken from the Levitical exemplars, and to read in it daily.² From 1 Sam. x. 25. compared with 2 Sam. v. 3. 1 Kings xii. 22—24. and 2 Kings xi. 17. it appears that the Israelitish kings were by no means possessed of unlimited power, but were restricted by a solemn stipulation; although they on some occasions evinced a disposition leaning towards despotism. (1 Sam. xi. 5—7. and xxii. 17, 18.) They had, however, the right of making war and peace, as well as the power of life and death; and could on particular occasions put criminals to death, without the formalities of justice (2 Sam. i. 5—15. iv. 9—12.): but, in general they administered justice; sometimes in a summary way by themselves where the case appeared clear, as David did (see 2 Sam. xii. 1—5. xiv. 4—11. and 1 Kings ii. 5—9.), or by judges duly constituted to hear and determine causes in the king's name. (1 Chron. xxiii. 4. xxvi. 29—32.) Michaelis thinks it probable that there were superior courts established at Jerusalem, in which David's sons presided, and that Psal. cxxii. 5. is an allusion to them; but no mention is made of a supreme tribunal in that city earlier than the reign of Jehoshaphat. (2 Chron. xix. 8—11.) Although the kings enjoyed the privilege of granting pardons to

¹ This law was to be a standing trial of prince and people, whether they had trust and confidence in God their deliverer. See Bp. Sherlock's Discourses on Prophecy, Disc. iv.; where he has excellently explained the reason and effect of the law, and the influence which the observance or neglect of it had in the affairs of the Israelites.

² The above regulations concerning the Jewish monarchs are fully considered and illustrated by Michaelis. Commentaries, vol. i. pp. 266—293.

offenders at their pleasure without consulting any person; and in ecclesiastical affairs exercised great power, sometimes deposing or condemning to death even the high priest himself (1 Sam. xxii. 17, 18. 1 Kings ii. 26. 27.), and at other times reforming gross abuses in religion, of which we have examples in the zealous conduct of Hezekiah and Josiah; yet this power was enjoyed by them not as *absolute* sovereigns in their own right. They were merely the viceroys of Jehovah, who was the sole legislator of Israel: and therefore as the kings could neither enact a new law nor repeal an old one, the government continued to be a *theocracy*, as well under their permanent administration, as we have seen that it was under the occasional administration of the judges. The only difference, that can be discovered between the two species of government, is that the conduct of the judges was generally directed by *urim*, and that of the kings, either by the inspiration of God vouchsafed to themselves, or by prophets raised up from time to time to reclaim them when deviating from their duty, as laid down by the law.

The inauguration of the kings was performed with various ceremonies and with great pomp. The principal of these was anointing with holy oil (Psal. lxxxix. 20.), which was sometimes privately performed by a prophet (1 Sam. x. 1. xvi. 1—13. 1 Kings xix. 16. 2 Kings ix. 1—6.), and was a symbolical prediction that the person so anointed would ascend the throne; but, after the monarchy was established, this unction was performed by a priest (1 Kings i. 39.), at first in some public place (1 Kings i. 32—34.), and afterwards in the temple, the monarch elect being surrounded by his guards. (2 Kings xi. 11, 12. 2 Chron. xxiii.) It is probable also that he was at the same time girded with a sword. (Psalm xlv. 3.) After the king was anointed he was proclaimed by the sound of the trumpet. In this manner was Solomon proclaimed (1 Kings i. 34. 39.), and (it should seem) also the rebel Absalom. (2 Sam. xv. 10.) When Jehovah proclaimed his law, and himself to be the King of Israel, the sound of the trumpet preceded with great vehemence. (Exod. xix. 16.) The knowledge of this circumstance will explain the many passages in the Psalms, in which God is said to have *gone up with a shout; the Lord, with the sound of a trumpet*; and the Israelites are called upon, *with trumpets to make a joyful noise before the Lord the King*. (See Psal. xlvii. 5. xcvi. 6. &c.) From this ceremony of anointing, kings are in the Scriptures frequently termed the *anointed of the Lord and of the God of Jacob*. (1 Sam. xxiv. 6. 10. xxvi. 9. 11. 16. 23. 2 Sam. xxiii. 1. Psal. ii. 2. lxxxix. 38. Habak. iii. 13.) A diadem or crown was also placed upon the sovereign's head and a sceptre put into his hand (Ezek. xxi. 26. Psal. xlv. 6. 2 Kings xi. 12.), after which he entered into a solemn covenant with his subjects that he would govern according to its conditions, and to the law of Moses. (2 Sam. v. 3. 1 Chron. xi. 3. 2 Kings xi. 12. 2 Chron. xxiii. 11. compare Deut. xvii. 18.) The nobles in their turn promise obedience, and appear to have confirmed this pledge with a kiss, either of the knees or feet. (Psal. ii. 12.)

Loud acclamations accompanied with music then followed, after which the king entered the city. (1 Kings i. 39, 40. 2 Kings xi. 12. 19. 2 Chron. xxiii. 11.) To this practice there are numerous allusions both in the Old Testament (Psal. xlvii. 1—9. xcvi. 1. xcix. 1, &c.), as well as in the New (Matt. xxi. 9, 10. Mark xi. 9, 10. Luke xix. 35—38.); in which last-cited passages the Jews, by welcoming our Saviour in the same manner as their kings were formerly inaugurated, manifestly acknowledged him to be the Messiah whom they expected. Lastly, after entering the city, the kings seated themselves upon the throne, and received the congratulations of their subjects. (1 Kings i. 35. 47, 48. 2 Kings xi. 19, 20.) On the inauguration of Saul, however, when there was neither sceptre, diadem, nor throne, these ceremonies were not observed. After the establishment of royalty among the Jews, it appears to have been a maxim in their law, that *the king's person was inviolable, even though he might be tyrannical and unjust* (1 Sam. xxiv. 5—8.); a maxim which is necessary not only to the security of the king, but also to the welfare of the subject. On this principle, the Amalekite, who told David the improbable and untrue story of his having put the mortally wounded Saul to death, that he might not fall into the hands of the Philistines, was, merely on this his own statement, ordered by David to be instantly despatched, *because he had laid his hand on the Lord's Anointed*. (2 Sam. i. 14.)

The chief distinctions of majesty mentioned in Scripture, were the Royal Apparel, the crown, the throne, and the sceptre. The *Royal Apparel*, was splendid (Matt. vi. 29.), and the retinue of the sovereigns was both numerous and magnificent. (1 Kings iv. 1—24.) That the apparel of the Jewish monarchs was different from that of all other persons, is evident from Ahab's changing his apparel before he engaged in battle, and from Jehoshaphat's retaining his. (1 Kings xxii. 30.) It is most probable, after the example of other oriental sovereigns, that their garments were made of purple and fine white linen (Esth. viii. 15.): in after times, it appears from Luke xvi. 19. that the rich and great were clad in purple and fine linen: and this circumstance may account for Pilate's soldiers clothing Christ with purple (Mark xv. 17.), and for Herod the tetrarch, with his men of war, arraying him in a gorgeous, most probably a white robe (Luke xxiii. 11.), thereby in derision clothing him as a king. Further, their *Crowns* or diadems glittered with gold, silver, and precious stones. (2 Sam. xii. 30. Zech. vi. 11.) Their arms were decorated with bracelets (2 Sam. i. 10.) as those of the Persian sovereigns are to this day¹; and their thrones were equally magnificent. The Throne of Solomon is particularly described in 1 Kings x. 18—20. Similar to this was the throne on which the sovereign of Persia was seated to receive his late Majesty's ambassador, Sir Gore Ouseley, Bart. It was ascended by steps, on which were painted dragons (that of Solomon was decorated with carved lions; and

¹ Morier's Second Journey, p. 173.

was also overlaid with fine gold).¹ The *Royal Sceptre* seems to have been various at different times. That of Saul was a javelin or spear (1 Sam. xviii. 10. xxii. 6.), as Justin informs us was antiently the practice among the early Greek sovereigns.² Sometimes the sceptre was a walking-stick, cut from the branches of trees, decorated with gold or studded with golden nails. Such sceptres were carried by judges, and by such a sceptre Homer introduces Achilles as swearing³, and to a sceptre of this description the prophet Ezekiel unquestionably alludes. (xix. 11.)

In time of peace, as well as of war, it was customary to have watchmen set on high places, wherever the king was, in order to prevent him from being surprised. Thus Dávid, at Jerusalem, was informed by the watchman of the approach of the messengers, who brought him tidings of Absalom's defeat. (2 Sam. xviii. 24—27.) And Jehoram king of Israel, who had an army lying before Ramoth-Gilead, kept a watchman on the tower of Jezreel where he was, who *spied the company of Jehu as he came*, and accordingly announced it to the king. (2 Kings ix. 17. 20.)

It is well known that the tables of the modern oriental sovereigns are characterised by luxurious profusion; and vast numbers are fed from the royal kitchen. This fact serves to account for the apparently immense quantity of provisions stated in 1 Kings iv. 22, 23. 28. to have been consumed by the household of Solomon, whose vessels were for the most part of massive gold (1 Kings x. 21.), and which were furnished throughout the year from the twelve provinces into which he divided his dominions. A similar custom obtains in Persia to this day.⁴ Splendid banquets were given by the kings (Dan. v. 1. Matt. xxii. 1. Mark vi. 21.); but it does not appear that women were admitted to them, except in Persia, when the queen was present until the men grew warm with wine. (Dan. v. 2, 3. 23. Esther i. 11. v. 4. 8. vii. 1.)⁵

Numerous are the allusions in the sacred writings to the courts of princes, and to the regal state which they antiently enjoyed. The eastern monarchs were ever distinguished for studiously keeping up the majesty of royalty, and thus inspiring their subjects with the most reverential awe. They were difficult of access⁶, very rarely shewing themselves to their people, and lived in the depths of their vast palaces, surrounded with every possible luxury, and gratifying every desire as it arose. In these kingdoms of slaves it was accounted the summit of human grandeur and felicity to be admitted into that splendid circle which surrounded the person of their sovereign; whence the expression of seeing God (Matt. v. 8.) is to be explained of the enjoyment of the highest possible happiness,

¹ Morier's Second Journey, p. 174.

² Hist. lib. xliii. c. 3.

³ Iliad, lib. i. v. 234—239.

⁴ Morier's Second Journey, p. 274.

⁵ This is confirmed by Herodotus, lib. v. c. 18.

⁶ Among the Persians it was deemed *impious* to enter the royal presence without being called for, Esdras iv. 11. Herodotus (book f. c. 99.) states Deioces the Mede to have been the first who instituted this ordinance.

namely, his favour and protection, especially in the life to come. And as only a select few in the oriental courts were permitted to behold the face of the monarch, it is in reference to this custom that the angel Gabriel replied to Zechariah (who hesitated to believe his annunciation of the Baptist's birth), that he was Gabriel that stood in the presence of God; thus intimating that he stood in a state of high favour and trust with Jehovah. (Luke i. 19.) *To dwell, or to stand in the presence of a sovereign* is an oriental idiom, importing the most eminent and dignified station at court.

This allusive phraseology beautifully illustrates another very striking passage of Scripture. When the disciples, from their very low conceptions of the nature of Christ's kingdom, were contending among themselves who should be the greatest, our Saviour, in order to dispel these animosities, took a child; and, placing him before them, in the most solemn manner assured them that, *unless they were converted*, and purified their minds from all ambition and worldly thoughts, *they should not enter the kingdom of heaven*, should not be deemed proper subjects of the spiritual kingdom of the Messiah. But, continued Jesus Christ, *whosoever therefore shall humble himself as this little child, the same is greatest in the kingdom of heaven*; and, after urging various cautions against harshly treating sincere and humble Christians, he added, *Take heed that ye despise not one of these little ones; for I say unto you that in heaven their angels do* • *always* BEHOLD THE FACE OF MY FATHER WHICH IS IN HEAVEN. (Matt. xviii. 1—10.); referring to the custom of oriental courts, where the great men, those who are highest in office and favour, are most frequently in the prince's palace and presence. (Esth. i. 14. 1 Kings x. 8. xii. 6. 2 Kings xxv. 19.) On another occasion, after our Lord had promised the apostles that they should sit on twelve thrones to judge the tribes of Israel, still mistaking the spiritual nature of his kingdom, the mother of James and John came to Jesus with her sons, and requested that he would grant that they might sit, the one on his right hand, and the other on his left hand, in his kingdom. (Matt. xx. 20—23.) This alludes to the custom which in those times obtained in the courts of princes; where two of the noblest and most dignified personages were respectively seated, one on each side, next the sovereign himself, thus enjoying the most eminent places of dignity.¹ (Compare 1 Kings ii. 19. Psal. xlv. 9. and Heb. i. 3.) In reply to the request of Salome, our Saviour stated that seats of distinguished eminence in his kingdom were not to be given through favour or partiality, but to those only whom God should see properly prepared for them.

The eastern monarchs were never approached but with presents of some kind or other, according to the ability of the individual, who accompanied them with expressions of the profoundest rever-

¹ Among the ancient Persians, to sit *next* the person of the king, was the 1 possible honour. See 1 Esdras iii. 7. iv. 42. Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xi. c. iii.

ence, prostrating themselves to the ground¹; and the same practice continues to this day. Thus Jacob instructed his sons to carry a present to Joseph, when they went to buy food of him as governor of Egypt. (Gen. xliii. 11. 26.) In like manner the magi, who came from the East to adore Jesus Christ, as king of the Jews, brought him presents of gold, frankincense, and myrrh. (Matt. ii. 11.) Allusions to this practice occur in Gen. xxxii. 13. 1 Kings x. 2. 10. 25. 2 Kings v. 5.; see also 1 Sam. ix. 7. and 2 Kings viii. 8. The prostrations were made, with every demonstration of reverence, to the ground. Thus David *stooped with his face to the earth, and bowed himself* before Saul. (1 Sam. xxiv. 8.) The mode of doing reverence to the sovereign, among the antient Persians, was little short of absolute idolatry²; and similar prostrations are made by their descendants in the present day.³ On these occasions, it was usual to address them with some compliment, or with wishes for their long life. Thus the widow of Tekoah, after prostrating herself before David, addressed him with — *My lord is wise according to the wisdom of an angel of God*⁴, (2 Sam. xiv. 4. 20.); and the Chaldean magi accosted Nebuchadnezzar with, — *O king, live for ever*. (Dan. ii. 4.)⁵ The all but idolatrous homage thus rendered to their monarchs, was exacted by their chief courtiers and favourites of all who approached them: and such was their pride, that the refusal of this homage never failed to involve the refractory individual in ruin. Thus Orsines, a descendant of Cyrus, who had refused to worship the eunuch Bagoas (who had enslaved Alexander by his abominable obsequiousness), fell a victim to the revengeful minion's wounded pride.⁶ In like manner, Mordecai's refusal to prostrate himself before Haman (Esth. iii. 2.) would have proved fatal not only to himself but also to the Jewish nation, had not the malign-

¹ It was (says Ælian) the law of Persia, that, whenever their king went abroad, the people should, according to their abilities and occupations, present him, as he passed along, with some gift, — as an ox, a sheep, a quantity of corn, or wine, or with some fruit. It happened one day, when Artaxerxes was taking the air, that he was met by one Sinætes. The man being at a great distance from home, was in the greatest distress, having nothing to offer, and observing others crowding with their presents. At length he ran to the river Cyrus, and taking up some water in both his hands, he approached the monarch, and thus accosted him: — “O king! reign for ever! I now pay my respects in the best manner I am able. I present to thee some of the waters of the river Cyrus: should your majesty ever pass by, or near, my house, I hope to vie with the best of these in my donatives.” The monarch was highly pleased with the man, commanded his present to be received into a golden vial, and afterwards handsomely rewarded him. Ælian, Var. Hist. lib. i. c. 31, 32.

² Quintus Curtius, lib. vi. c. 6. tom. ii. p. 23. (edit. Bipont): lib. viii. c. 5. (p. 118.)

³ Morier's Second Journey, p. 172.; where an engraving is given, illustrative of the oriental prostrations.

⁴ This is very similar to the hyperbolical language, which is addressed by the Hindoos to an European, when they are desirous of obtaining something from him. “*Sahab, say they, can do every thing. No one can prevent the execution of Sahab's commands. Sahab is God.*” (Ward's View of the History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. ii. p. 323.)

⁵ A similar salutation is to this day given in India. When a poor man goes into the presence of a king, to solicit a favour, he says, “O Father! thou art the support of the destitute — *Mayest thou live to old age!*” Ibid. p. 333.

⁶ Quintus Curtius, lib. x. c. 1. vol. i. pp. 199—201. (edit. Bipont.)

nant design of the crafty but mortified Agagite (Esth. iii. 3—6. v. 13.) been providentially frustrated.

Eunuchs were introduced into the courts of princes, and also into the families of great men at a very early period; and black eunuchs appear to have been preferred, (as they still are in the East,) at least we find one in the court of Zedekiah. (Jer. xxxviii. 7.)

Those who rendered personal services to the sovereign had their names inscribed in the public registers (Esth. vi. 1.)¹; and were rewarded by distinguished marks of the royal favour. Thus Mordecai was arrayed with the royal vestments and led in state on horseback through the street of the city, with the royal diadem on his head. (Esth. vi. 8—11.) On such occasions the person raised to dignity was invested with a new name or title expressive of his deserts. This was the case with Joseph (Gen. xli. 45.), Solomon (2 Sam. xii. 25.), Daniel and his companions (Dan. i. 7.); and to this there is an evident allusion in Rev. ii. 17.

The sovereigns of the East, it is well known, are very fond of displaying their gorgeous splendour. The present sovereign of Persia, and (after his example) his sons, generally appoint for the reception of ambassadors, such an hour as, according to the season, or the intended room of audience, will best enable them to display the brilliancy of their jewels in full sunshine. The title of *bright* or *resplendent* was added to the name of one sovereign, who lived upwards of eight centuries ago; because his regal ornaments, glittering in the solar rays on a solemn festival, so dazzled the eyes of all beholders that they could scarcely bear the effulgence: and some knew not which was the monarch, or which the great luminary of the day. Thus Theophylact Simocatta² (a Greek historian who flourished in the seventh century of the Christian æra) relates that the Persian king, Hormisdas, sitting on his throne, astonished all spectators by the blazing glories of his jewels. Thus also king Agrippa was almost regarded as a god, so powerfully did his ornamented dress reflect the morning sun-beams³: and it was probably the splendour of Solomon “*in all his glory*” when seated on the throne, in addition to the magnificence of his establishment, which so struck the queen of Sheba on beholding them, that “*there was no more spirit in her.*” (1 Kings x. 4, 5.)

Further, whenever the oriental sovereigns go abroad, they are uniformly attended by a numerous and splendid retinue: the Hebrew kings and their sons either rode on asses or mules (2 Sam. xiii. 29. 1 Kings i. 33. 38.) or in chariots, (1 Kings i. 5. 2 Kings ix. 21.

¹ Herodotus, lib. viii. c. 85. Thucydides, lib. i. c. 129. Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xi. c. 6. The same practice continues to obtain at the Ottoman Porte (Baron De Tott's Mem. vol. ii. p. 15.), and also in Abyssinia, and other parts of the East. Burder's Oriental Customs, vol. i. p. 311. fifth edit.

² Theophylact, lib. iv. c. 3. cited by Sir Wm. Ouseley, to whom we are indebted for the above remark, in his Travels in various Countries of the East, more particularly Persia, vol. ii. p. 36. (London, 1821, 4to.)

³ Acts xii. 21, 22. See Vol. I. p. 193. where Josephus's account of Agrippa's gorgeous array is given in illustration of the sacred historian.

x. 15.) preceded or accompanied by their royal guards (who, in 2 Sam. viii. 18. and xv. 18., are termed Cherethites and Pelethites); as the oriental sovereigns do to this day. Further, whenever the Asiatic monarchs entered upon an expedition, or took a journey through desert and untravelled countries, they sent harbingers before them to prepare all things for their passage, and pioneers to open the passes, level the ways, and remove all impediments. The ancient sovereigns of Hindoostan used to send persons to precede them in their journies, and command the inhabitants to clear the roads; a very necessary step in a country, where there are scarcely any public roads.¹ To this practice the prophet Isaiah manifestly alludes (Isa. xl. 3. compared with Mal. iii. 1. and Matt. iii. 3.); and we shall obtain a clear notion of the preparation of the way for a royal expedition, and the force and beauty of the prophetic declaration will fully appear, if we attend to the following narrative of the marches of Semiramis in Media, recorded by Diodorus Siculus.² “In her march to Ecbatane, she came to the Zarcean mountain, which extending many furlongs, and being full of *craggy precipices* and *deep hollows*, could not be passed without making a long circuit. Being desirous, therefore, of leaving an everlasting memorial of herself, as well as to make a shorter way, she ordered the *precipices to be digged down*, and the *hollow places to be filled up*; and at a great expence she made a shorter and more expeditious road, which to this day is called the road of Semiramis. Afterwards she made a progress through Persia, and all her other dominions in Asia; and wherever she came, she commanded the *mountains* and *craggy precipices to be cut down*, and, at a vast expence, made the *ways level and plain*. On the other hand, in *low places* she raised *mounds*, on which she erected monuments in honour of her deceased generals, and sometimes whole cities.” The writer of the apocryphal book of Barnch (v. 7.) expresses the same subject by the same images, either taking them from Isa. xl. 3. (or perhaps from lxii. 10—12.) or from the common notions of his countrymen: “For God,” says he, “hath appointed that every high *hill*, and banks of long continuance, should be *cast down* and *vallies filled up*, to make even the ground that Israel may go safely in the glory of God.” The Jewish church was that desert country to which John the Baptist was sent (Matt. iii. 1—4.), to announce the coming of the Messiah. It was at that time destitute of all religious cultivation, and of the spirit and practice of piety: and John was sent to *prepare the way of the Lord* by preaching the doctrine of repentance. The desert is therefore to be considered as a proper emblem of the rude state of the Jewish church, which was the true wilderness meant by the prophet, and in which John was to prepare the way of the promised Messiah.³

¹ Ward's View of the History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. iii. p. 339.

² Bibliotheca Historica, lib. ii. c. 13, 14. (vol. ii. pp. 44—46. edit. Bipont.)

³ Bishop Lowth on Isaiah xl. 3. vol. i. pp. 252—254. A practice, similar to that above described, is recorded by the chaplain to Sir Thomas Roe, ambassador to the Mogul

It was customary for the Jewish kings sometimes to nominate their successors, and sometimes to assume them as partners with them in the government during their own life-time. Thus David caused Solomon to be anointed (1 Kings i. 32—40.); so that Solomon reigned conjointly with his father during the short remainder of David's life, for it does not appear that the latter resigned his sceptre, till he resigned his breath. In like manner Rehoboam, though a prince of no great merit, appointed his youngest son Abijah to be *ruler among his brethren*, (2 Chron. xi. 22.) designing that he should reign after him; and accordingly Abijah succeeded him on the throne. (2 Chron. xiii. 1.) So, among the sons of Josiah, Jehoahaz, the younger, was preferred to Jehoiakim the elder. (2 Kings xxiii. 31—36.) This practice of the Jewish sovereigns, it has already been shewn, serves to elucidate some supposed chronological difficulties in Sacred History.¹

V. With regard to the revenues of the kings of Israel, as none were appointed by Moses, so he left no ordinances concerning them: we may, however, collect from the sacred writings, that they were derived from the following sources:

1. Voluntary offerings, or presents, which were made to them conformably to the oriental custom. (1 Sam. x. 27. xvi. 20.) Michaelis is of opinion that they were confined to Saul only, as no trace of them is to be found after his time.

2. The produce of the royal flocks (1 Sam. xxi. 7. 2. 2 Sam. xiii. 23. 2 Chron. xxxii. 28, 29.); and as both king and subjects had a common of pasture in the Arabian deserts, Michaelis thinks that David kept numerous herds there (1 Chron. xxvii. 29—31.), which were partly under the care of Arabian herdsmen.

3. The produce of the royal demesnes, consisting of arable lands, vineyards, olive and sycamore grounds, &c. which had originally been uninclosed and uncultivated, or were the property of state criminals confiscated to the sovereign: these demesnes were cultivated by bondsmen and perhaps also by the people of conquered countries (1 Chron. xxvii. 26—31. 2 Chron. xxvi. 10.); and it appears from 1 Sam. viii. 14. xxii. 7. and Ezek. xlvi. 17. that the kings assigned part of their domains to their servants in lieu of salary.

4. Another source of the royal revenue was the tenth part of all the produce of the fields and vineyards, the collection and management of which seem to have been confided to the officers mentioned

court in the reigns of James I. and Charles I.; who says (p. 128.) that, making a progress with the ambassador and emperor, they came to a wilderness, "where (*by a very great company sent before us, to make those passages and places fit for us*) a way was cut out and made even, broad enough for our convenient passage. And in the place, where we pitched our tents, a great compass of ground was rid and made plain for them, by grubbing a number of trees and bushes: yet there we went as readily to our tents, as we did when they were set up in the plains." Fragments supplemental to Calmet's Dictionary, No. 171. See similar instances in Dr. Clarke's Travels, vol. viii. p. 277. 8vo. Mr. Forbes's Oriental Memoirs, vol. ii. p. 450. and Mr. Ward's View of the History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. iii. p. 382.

¹ See Vol. I. p. 552.

in 1 Kings iv. 7. and 1 Chron. xxvii. 25. It is also probable from 1 Kings x. 14. that the Israelites likewise paid a tax in money. These imposts Solomon appears to have increased; and Rehoboam's refusal to lessen them is stated by the sacred historian as the cause of the rebellion of the ten tribes against him. (1 Kings xii. 14. 18.) There is an allusion in Mal. i. 8. and Neh. v. 18. to the custom of paying dues in kind to governors, which obtains to this day in Abyssinia.¹

5. Not only did the most precious part of the plunder of the conquered nations flow into the royal treasury, (2 Sam. viii.) but the latter also had tributes imposed on them, which were termed MINCHA, or presents, and were paid partly in money, and partly in agricultural produce. (1 Kings iv. 21. Psal. lxxii. 10. compared with 1 Chron. xxvii. 25—31.)

6. Lastly, the customs paid to Solomon by the foreign merchants who passed through his dominions (1 Kings x. 15.), afforded a considerable revenue to that monarch; who, as the Mosaic laws did not encourage foreign commerce, carried on a very extensive and lucrative trade (1 Kings x. 22.), particularly in Egyptian horses and the byssus or fine linen of Egypt.² (1 Kings x. 28, 29.)

VI. On the introduction of the regal government among the Israelites, the princes of the tribes, heads of families, scribes or genealogists, and judges, retained the authority which they had previously exercised, and constituted a senate or legislative assembly for the cities, in or near which they respectively resided. (1 Kings xii. 1—24. 1 Chron. xxiii. 4. xxvi. 29, 30. xxviii. and xxix. 6.) The judges and scribes or genealogists were appointed by the sovereign, together with other officers or magistrates, of whom the following were the principal.

1. The *Royal Counsellors*, or Privy Council, as we perhaps should term them. (Isa. iii. 3. xix. 11. 12. Jer. xxvi. 11). Such were *the old men that stood before Solomon while he lived*, and whom the headstrong Rehoboam consulted (1 Kings xii. 6.); and such also was *Jonathan, David's uncle*. (1 Chron. xxvii. 32.)

2. The *Prophets*, though holding a divine commission as prophets, may nevertheless be noticed among the royal officers; as they were consulted by the pious monarchs of Israel and Judah. Thus Nathan was consulted by David (2 Sam. vii. 2.); Micaiah, by Jehoshaphat (1 Kings xxii. 7, 8.); Isaiah, by Hezekiah (2 Kings xix. 2.); and the prophetess Huldah, by Josiah. (2 Kings xxii. 14—20.) But the idolatrous and profligate kings imitated the heathen monarchs, and summoned to their council soothsayers and false prophets. Ahab, for instance, consulted the pseudo-prophets of Baal (1 Kings xviii. 22. and xxii. 6.); as Pharaoh had before called in the wise men and the sorcerers or magicians (Exod. vii. 11. and viii. 18.); and

¹ Bruce's Travels, vol. i. p. 353. 8vo.

² Jahrbuch der Theologia Biblica, pp. 330—332. Michaelis's Commentaries, vol. i. pp. 299

Nebuchadnezzar afterwards consulted the *magicians and astrologers* in his realm. (Dan. i. 20.)

3. The *מִזְכֵּיר* (MAZKIR) or Recorder (2 Sam. viii. 16.), who in the margin of our larger English Bibles is termed a *remembrancer* or *writer of chronicles*. His office was of no mean estimation in the eastern world, where it was customary with kings to keep daily registers of all the transactions of their reigns. Whoever discharged this trust with effect, it was necessary that he should be acquainted with the true springs and secrets of action, and consequently be received into the greatest confidence. Ahilud was David's recorder or historiographer (2 Sam. viii. 16.), and appears to have been succeeded in this office by his son Jehoshaphat (2 Sam. xx. 24.), who was retained by Solomon. (1 Kings iv. 3.) Joah, the son of Asaph, was the recorder of the pious king Hezekiah (2 Kings xviii. 18. 37. Isa. xxxvi. 3.) In Esther vi. 1. and x. 2. mention is made of the *records of the chronicles*, written by this officer.

4. The *סֹפֵר* (SOPHER) or *Scribe* seems to have been the king's secretary of state: he registered all acts and decrees. Seraiah (2 Sam. viii. 17.) and Sheva (2 Sam. xx. 25.) were David's secretaries. This officer is also mentioned in 1 Kings iv. 3. 2 Kings xviii. 18. and Isa. xxxvi. 3.

5. The *High Priest*, as one would naturally expect in a theocracy, is likewise to be reckoned among the royal counsellors. Zadok the son of Ahitub, and Ahimelek the son of Abiathar, are particularly mentioned among the principal officers of David. (2 Sam. viii. 17. 1 Chron. xviii. 16.)

VII. Mention has already been incidentally made of the numerous retinue that attended the oriental monarchs: the principal officers, who thus composed the domestic establishment of the Israelitish and Jewish kings, were as follow:—

*1. The *Officers*, mentioned in 1 Kings iv. 5. 7—19. and 1 Chron. xxvii. 25—31., are in 1 Kings xx. 15. called the *princes of the provinces*. They supplied the royal table, and must not be confounded with those who collected the tribute. In 2 Sam. xx. 24. and 1 Kings iv. 6. Adoram, who is enumerated among David's and Solomon's officers of state, is said to be *over the tribute*: he was, probably, what we call *chancellor of the exchequer*. He received and brought into the royal treasury all the proceeds of taxes and tributes.

*2. The *Governor of the Palace*, who was over the household, seems to have answered, as to his employment and rank, to the stewards whom the rich men engaged to superintend their affairs. To him was committed the charge of the servants, and indeed of every thing which belonged to the palace. Abishar held this office under David (1 Kings iv. 6.); Obadiah, under Ahab (1 Kings xviii. 3.); and Eliakim, under Hezekiah. (2 Kings xviii. 18.) From Isa. xxii. 22. it appears that this officer wore, as a mark of his office, a robe of a peculiar make, bound with a precious girdle, and carried on his shoulder a richly ornamented key.

3. The *King's Friend* or *Companion* was the person, with whom

the sovereign conversed most familiarly and confidentially: he sometimes had the oversight of the royal palace, and sometimes even the charge of the kingdom. (1 Kings iv. 5. 1 Chron. xxvii. 33.) In the time of the Maccabees, this appellation admitted of a broader meaning, and was applied to any one who was employed to execute the royal commands, or who held a high office in the government. See 1 Macc. x. 65. xi. 26, 27.

4. The *King's Life Guard*, whose commander was termed the *captain of the guard*. This office existed in the court of the Pharaohs (Gen. xxxvii. 36. xxxix. 1.), as well as in that of the Israelitish and Jewish monarchs. The captain of the guard appears to have been employed in executing summary justice on state criminals. See 1 Kings ii. 25. 34. In the time of David, the royal life-guards were called Cherethites and Pelethites, concerning the origin of whose names commentators and critics are by no means agreed. The Chaldee Targum, on the second book of Samuel, terms them the *archers* and *slingers*: and as the Hebrews were expert in the use of the bow and the sling, it is not improbable that the royal guards were armed with them.

The life guards of the Asmonæan sovereigns, and subsequently of Herod and his sons, were foreigners: they bore a lance or long spear, whence they were denominated in Greek Σπεκουλατωρες. (Mark vi. 27.)

VIII. The women of the king's harem are to be considered as forming part of the royal equipage; as, generally speaking, they were principally destined to augment the pomp, which was usually attached to his office. Notwithstanding Moses had prohibited the multiplication of women in the character of wives and concubines (Deut. xvii. 17.): yet the Hebrew monarchs, especially Solomon, and his son Rehoboam, paid but little regard to his admonitions, and too readily as well as wickedly exposed themselves to the perils which Moses had anticipated as the result of forming such improper connexions. (1 Kings xi. 1—3. 2 Chron. xi. 21. xiii. 21.) The Israelitish and Jewish monarchs spared no expense in decorating the persons of their women, and of the eunuchs (the black ones especially) who guarded them: and who, as the Mosaic law prohibited castration (Lev. xxii. 24. Deut. xxiii. 1.), were procured from foreign countries at a great expense. In proof of the employment of eunuchs in the Hebrew court see 1 Kings xxii. 9. (Heb.) 2 Kings viii. 6. (Heb.) ix. 32, 33. xx. 18. xxiii. 11. (Heb.) Jer. xxxviii. 7. xxxix. 16. and xli. 16. The maids of the harem, at the king's pleasure, became his concubines; but the successor to the throne, though he came into possession of the harem, was not at liberty to have any intercourse with the inmates of it. Hence Adonijah, who in his zeal to obtain Abishag, a concubine of David's, for his wife, had dropt some intimations of his right to the kingdom, was punished with death, as a seditious person, (1 Kings ii. 13—25.) But though the king had unlimited power over the harem, yet the wife who was chiefly in favour, and especially the

mother of the king, enjoyed great political influence. (1 Kings xi. 3. 2 Chron. xxi. 6. and xxii. 3.) Hence it is that we find the mother of the king so frequently and particularly mentioned in the books of Kings and Chronicles. The similar influence of the reigning sultana, as well as of the mother of the sovereign, in modern oriental courts, is attested by almost every traveller in the East.

IX. The *Promulgation of the Laws* was variously made at different times. Those of Moses, as well as the commands or temporary edicts of Joshua, were announced to the people by the שוטרִים (SHOTERIM), who in our authorised English version are termed *officers*. Afterwards, when the regal government was established, the edicts and laws of the kings were publicly proclaimed by criers. (Jer. xxxiv. 8, 9. Jonah, iii. 5—7.) But in the distant provinces, towns, and cities, they were made known by messengers specially sent for that purpose, (1 Sam. xi. 7. 2 Chron. xxxvi. 22. Ezra i. 1.) These proclamations were made at the gates of the cities, and in Jerusalem at the gate of the temple, where there was always a great concourse of people. On this account it was that the prophets frequently delivered their predictions in the temple (and also in the streets and at the gates) of Jerusalem, as being the edicts of Jehovah, the supreme King of Israel. (Jer. vii. 2, 3. xi. 6. xvii. 19, 20. xxxvi. 10.) In later times, both Jesus Christ and his apostles taught in and at the gate of the temple. (Luke ii. 46. Matt. xxvi. 55. Mark xii. 35. Acts iii. 11. v. 12.)¹

X. The kingdom which had been founded by Saul, and carried to its highest pitch of grandeur and power by David and Solomon, subsisted entire for the space of 120 years; until Rehoboam, the son and successor of Solomon, refused to mitigate the burthens of his subjects, when a division of the twelve tribes took place: ten, of which adhering to Jeroboam formed the kingdom of Israel, while the tribes of Judah and Benjamin, continuing faithful in their allegiance to Rehoboam, constituted the kingdom of Judah.

The kingdom of Israel subsisted under various sovereigns during a period of 264 or 271 years, according to some chronologers; its metropolis Samaria being captured by Shalmaneser king of Assyria, B. C. 717 or 719, after a siege of three years. Of the Israelites, whose numbers had been reduced by immense and repeated slaughters, some of the lower sort were suffered to remain in their native country; but the nobles and all the more opulent persons were carried into captivity beyond the Euphrates.²

¹ Jahn, *Archæologia Biblica*, pp. 332—335. 330.

² It was the belief of some of the ancient fathers of the Christian church, that the descendants of the ten tribes did afterwards return into their own country; and the same notion has obtained among some modern Jews, but neither of these opinions is supported by history. In the New Testament, indeed, we find mention of the twelve tribes (Matt. xix. 28. Luke xxii. 30. Acts xxvi. 7.): and St. James (i. 1.) directs his epistle to them; but it cannot be concluded from these passages, that they were at that time gathered together; all that can be inferred from them is, that they were still in being. Perhaps the whole body of the Jewish nation retained the name of the twelve tribes according to the ancient division; as we find the disciples called the twelve after

The kingdom of Judah continued 388, or, according to some chronologers, 404 years; Jerusalem its capital being taken, the temple burnt, and its sovereign Zedekiah being carried captive to Babylon by Nebuchadnezzar; the rest of his subjects (with the exception of the poorer classes who were left in Judæa) were likewise carried into captivity beyond the Euphrates, where they and their posterity remained seventy years, agreeably to the divine predictions.

CHAPTER II.

POLITICAL STATE OF THE JEWS, FROM THEIR RETURN FROM THE BABYLONISH CAPTIVITY, TO THE SUBVERSION OF THEIR CIVIL AND ECCLESIASTICAL POLITY.

SECTION I.

POLITICAL STATE OF THE JEWS UNDER THE ASMONÆAN PRINCES, AND THE SOVEREIGNS OF THE HERODIAN FAMILY.

I. *Brief Account of the Asmonæan Princes.* — II. *Herod the Great.* — *St. Matthew's narrative of his murder of the infants at Bethlehem confirmed.* — III. *Archelaus.* — IV. *Herod Antipas.* — V. *Philip.* — VI. *Herod Agrippa.* — VII. *Agrippa junior.*

I. **ON** the subversion of the Babylonian empire by Cyrus the founder of the Persian monarchy (B. C. 543), he authorised the Jews by an edict to return into their own country, with full permission to enjoy their laws and religion, and caused the city and temple of Jerusalem to be rebuilt. In the following year, part of the Jews returned under Zerubbabel, and renewed their sacrifices: the theocratic government, which had been in abeyance during the captivity, was resumed; but the re-erection of the city and temple being interrupted for several years by the treachery and hostility of the Samaritans or Cutheans, the avowed enemies of the Jews, the completion and dedication of the temple did not take place until the year 511 B. C., six years after the accession of Cyrus. The rebuilding of Jerusalem was accomplished, and the reformation of their ecclesiastical and civil polity was effected by the two divinely inspired and pious governors Ezra and Nehemiah. After

the death of Judas, and before the election of Matthias. This conjecture becomes more probable, as it is certain from the testimony of the sacred writers and of Josephus that there were considerable numbers of Israelites mingled with the Jews, sufficient indeed to authorise the former to speak of the twelve tribes as constituting but one body with the Jewish nation. Beausobre's *Israel*, to the New Test. (Bishop Watson's ed. 1766.)

their death the Jews were governed by their high priests, in subjection however to the Persian kings, to whom they paid tribute (Ezra iv. 13. vii. 24.), but with the full enjoyment of their other magistrates, as well as their liberties, civil and religious. Nearly three centuries of uninterrupted prosperity ensued, until the reign of Antiochus Epiphanes king of Syria, when they were most cruelly oppressed, and compelled to take up arms in their own defence.

Under the able conduct of Judas surnamed Maccabeus¹, and his valiant brothers, the Jews maintained a religious war for twenty-six years with five successive kings of Syria; and after destroying upwards of 200,000 of their best troops, the Maccabees finally established the independence of their own country and the aggrandisement of their family. This illustrious house, whose princes united the regal and pontifical dignity in their own persons, administered the affairs of the Jews during a period of one hundred and twenty-six years; until, disputes arising between Hyrcanus II. and his brother Aristobulus, the latter was defeated by the Romans under Pompey, who captured Jerusalem, and reduced Judæa to a tributary province of the republic (B.C. 59.)

II. Julius Cæsar, having defeated Pompey, continued Hyrcanus in the high priesthood, but bestowed the government of Judæa upon Antipater, an Idumæan by birth, who was a Jewish proselyte, and the father of Herod surnamed the Great who was subsequently king of the Jews. Antipater divided Judæa between his two sons Phasael and Herod, giving to the former the government of Jerusalem, and to the latter the province of Galilee; which being at that time greatly infested with robbers, HEROD signalised his courage by dispersing them, and shortly after attacked Antigonus the competitor of Hyrcanus in the priesthood, who was supported by the Tyrians. In the mean time, the Parthians having invaded Judæa, and carried into captivity Hyrcanus the high priest and Phasael the brother of Herod; the latter fled to Rome, where Mark Antony, with the consent of the senate, conferred on him the title of king of Judæa. By the aid of the Roman arms Herod kept possession of his dignity; and after three years of sanguinary and intestine war with the partisans of Antigonus, he was confirmed in his kingdom by Augustus.

This prince is characterised by Josephus as a person of singular courage and resolution, liberal and even extravagant in his expenditure, magnificent in his buildings, especially in the temple of Jerusalem, and apparently disposed to promote the happiness of every one. But under this specious exterior he concealed the most consummate duplicity; studious only how to attain and to secure his

¹ He is generally supposed to have derived this name from a cabalistical word, formed of M. C. B. I. the initial letters of the Hebrew Text, *Mi Chamoka Baelim Jehovah, i. e. who among the Gods is like unto thee, O Jehovah* (Exod. xv. 11.), which letters might have been displayed on his sacred standard, as the letters S. P. Q. R. (*Senatus, Populus Que Romanus*.) were on the Roman ensigns. Dr. Hales's Analysis of Chronology, vol. i. p. 599.

own dignity, he regarded no means, however unjustifiable, which might promote that object of his ambition; and in order to supply his lavish expenditure, he imposed oppressive burdens on his subjects. Inexorably cruel, and a slave to the most furious passions, he imbrued his hands in the blood of his wife, his children, and the greater part of his family¹; such indeed was the restlessness and jealousy of his temper, that he spared neither his people, nor the richest and most powerful of his subjects, not even his very friends. It is not at all surprising that such a conduct should procure Herod the hatred of his subjects, especially of the Pharisees, who engaged in various plots against him: and so suspicious did these conspiracies render him, that he put the innocent to the torture, lest the guilty should escape. These circumstances sufficiently account for Herod and all Jerusalem with him being troubled at the arrival of the Magi, to enquire where the Messiah was born. (Matt. ii. 1—3.) The Jews, who anxiously expected the Messiah “the Deliverer,” were moved with an anxiety made up of hopes and fears, of uncertainty and expectation, blended with a dread of the sanguinary consequences of new tumults; and Herod, who was a foreigner and usurper, was apprehensive lest he should lose his crown by the birth of a rightful heir. Hence we are furnished with a satisfactory

1 “When Herod,” says the accurate Lardner, “had gained possession of Jerusalem by the assistance of the Romans, and his rival Antigonus was taken prisoner, and in the hands of the Roman general Sosius, and by him carried to Mark Antony, Herod, by a large sum of money, persuaded Antony to put him to death. Herod’s great fear was, that Antigonus might sometime revive his pretensions, as being of the Asmonæan family. Aristobulus, brother of his wife Mariamne, was murdered by his directions at eighteen years of age, because the people at Jerusalem had shewn some affection for his person. In the seventh year of his reign from the death of Antigonus, he put to death Hyrcanus, grandfather of Mariamne, then eighty years of age, and who had saved Herod’s life when he was prosecuted by the Sanhedrin; a man, who in his youth and in the vigour of his life, and in all the revolutions of his fortune, had shewn a mild and peaceable disposition. His beloved wife, the beautiful and virtuous Mariamne, had a public execution, and her mother Alexandra followed soon after. Alexander and Aristobulus, his two sons by Mariamne, were strangled in prison by his order upon groundless suspicions, as it seems, when they were at man’s estate, were married and had children. I say nothing of the death of his eldest son Antipater. If Josephus’s character of him be just, he was a miscreant, and deserved the worst death that could be inflicted; in his last sickness, a little before he died, he sent orders throughout Judæa, requiring the presence of all the chief men of the nation at Jericho. His orders were obeyed, for they were enforced with no less penalty than that of death. When these men were come to Jericho, he had them all shut up in the circus, and calling for his sister Salome, and her husband Alexas, he told them, My life is now but short; I know the dispositions of the Jewish people, and nothing will please them more than my death. ‘You have these men in your custody; as soon as the breath is out of my body, and before my death can be known, do you let in the soldiers upon them and kill them. All Judæa and every family will then, though unwillingly, mourn at my death.’ Nay, Josephus says, ‘That with tears in his eyes he conjured them by their love to him, and their fidelity to God, not to fail of doing him this honour; and they promised they would not fail;’ these orders indeed were not executed. But as a modern historian of very good sense observes, ‘the history of this his most wicked design takes off all objection against the truth of murdering the innocents, which may be made from the incredibility of so barbarous and horrid an act. For this thoroughly shews, that there can nothing be imagined so cruel, barbarous, and horrid, which this man was not capable of doing.’ It may also be proper to observe, that almost all the executions I have mentioned, were sacrifices to his state jealousy, and love of empire.” Josephus, *Ant. Jud.* lib. xiv. c. 23. 25, 26. 28. lib. xvi. c. 7, 8, 11, 12. lib. xvii. c. 6. Lardner’s *Credibility*, part i. book ii. c. ii. § 1.

solution of the motive that led him to command all the male children to be put to death, who were under two years of age, in Bethlehem and its vicinity. (Matt. ii. 16.)

No very long time after the perpetration of this crime, Herod died, having suffered the most excruciating pains, in the thirty-seventh year of his being declared king of the Jews by the Romans. The tidings of his decease were received by his oppressed subjects with universal joy and satisfaction.

Herod had a numerous offspring by his different wives, although their number was greatly reduced by his unnatural cruelty in putting many of them to death: but, as few of his descendants are mentioned in the sacred volume, we shall notice only those persons of whom it is requisite that some account should be given for the better understanding of the New Testament. The annexed table will perhaps be found useful in distinguishing the particular persons of this family, whose names occur in the Evangelical histories.

ANTIPAS or ANTIPATER, an Idumæan,
appointed prefect of Judæa and Syria by Julius Cæsar.

HEROD THE GREAT, king of Judæa,
(Matt. ii. 1. Luke i. 5.)
of whose offspring the following are to be noticed:

ARISTOBULUS, strangled by order of his father.	ARCHELAUS, (Matt. ii. 22.)	PHILIP, (Luke iii. 1.)	HEROD ANTIPAS, (Luke iii. 1. Matt. xiv. 3. Mark vi. 14. Luke iii. 19, 20. & xxiii. 11.)
HEROD, king of Chalcis.	HEROD AGRIPPA, the elder, (Acts xii.)	HERODIAS, married to Herod Philip, (Matt. xiv. 3. Mark vi. 17. Luke iii. 19.)	
BERENICE, (Acts xxv. 13.)	AGRIPPA, junior, (Acts xxv. 13. xxvi. 1. <i>et seq.</i>)	DRUSILLA, (Acts xxiv. 24.)	

HEROD, misnamed the Great, by his will divided his dominions among his three sons, Archelaus, Herod Antipas, and Herod Philip.

III. To ARCHELAUS he assigned Judæa, Samaria, and Idumæa, with the regal dignity, subject to the approbation of Augustus, who ratified his will as it respected the territorial division, but conferred on Archelaus the title of *Ethnarch* or chief of the nation, with a promise of the regal dignity, if he should prove himself worthy of it. Archelaus entered upon his new office amid the loud acclama-

tions of his subjects, who considered him as a king; hence the evangelist says that he *reigned*. (Matt. ii. 22.) His reign, however, commenced inauspiciously: for, after the death of Herod and before Archelaus could go to Rome to obtain the confirmation of his father's will, the Jews having become very tumultuous at the temple in consequence of his refusing them some demands, Archelaus ordered his soldiers to attack them; on which occasion upwards of three thousand were slain.¹ On Archelaus going to Rome to solicit the regal dignity, (agreeably to the practice of the tributary kings of that age, who received their crowns from the Roman emperor,) the Jews sent an embassy, consisting of fifty of their principal men, with a petition to Augustus that they might be permitted to live according to their own laws, under a Roman governor. To this circumstance our Lord evidently alludes in the parables related by Saint Luke. (xix. 12—27.) *A certain nobleman* (ευγενής, a man of birth or rank, the son of Herod) *went into a far country* (Italy), *to receive for himself a kingdom* (that of Judæa) *and to return. But his citizens* (the Jews) *hated him, and sent a message* (or embassy) *after him* (to Augustus Cæsar), *saying "We will not have this man to reign over us."* The Jews however failed in their request, and Archelaus, *having received the kingdom* (or ethnarchy), on his return inflicted a severe vengeance on those *who would not that he should reign over them*.² The application of this parable is to Jesus Christ, who foretells that, on his ascension, he would go into a distant country, to receive the kingdom from his father; and that he would return, at the destruction of Jerusalem, to take vengeance on those who rejected him.³ The subsequent reign of Archelaus was turbulent, and disgraced by insurrections of the Jews against the Romans, and also by banditti and pretenders to the crown: at length, after repeated complaints against his tyranny and mal-administration, made to Augustus by the principal Jews and Samaritans who were joined by his own brothers, Archelaus was deposed and banished to Vienne in Gaul, in the tenth year of his reign; and his territories were annexed to the Roman province of Syria.⁴

IV. HEROD ANTIPAS (or Antipater), another of Herod's sons, received from his father the district of Galilee and Peræa, with the title of *Tetrarch*.⁵ He is described by Josephus as a crafty and

¹ This circumstance probably deterred the Holy Family from settling in Judæa on their return from Egypt; and induced them by the divine admonition to return to their former residence at Nazareth in Galilee. (Matt. ii. 22, 23.) Dr. Hales's *Analysis of Chronology*, vol. ii. p. 717.

² Josephus, *Ant. Jud.* lib. xvii. c. ix. § 3. c. xi.

³ There is an impressive application of this parable in Mr. Jones's *Lectures on the figurative language of Scripture*, lect. v. near the beginning. (Works, vol. iii. pp. 35, 36.)

⁴ Josephus, *Ant. Jud.* lib. xvii. c. xi. (al. xii.) § 2. c. xiii. (al. xiv.)

⁵ Concerning the meaning of this term learned men are by no means agreed. In its primary and original signification it implies a governor of the fourth part of a country; and this seems to have been the first meaning affixed to it. But afterwards it was given to the governors of a province, whether their government was the fourth part of a country or not: for Herod divided his kingdom only into three parts. The Tetrarchs, however, were regarded as princes, and sometimes were complimented with the title of *king*. (Matt.

incestuous prince, with which character the narratives of the evangelists coincide; for, having deserted his wife, the daughter of Aretas king of Arabia, he forcibly took away and married Herodias the wife of his brother Herod Philip, a proud and cruel woman, to gratify whom he caused John the Baptist to be beheaded (Matt. xiv. 9. Mark vi. 17. Luke iii. 19.), who had provoked her vengeance by his faithful reproof of their incestuous nuptials; though Josephus ascribes the Baptist's death to Herod's apprehension, lest the latter should by his influence raise an insurrection among the people. It was this Herod that laid snares for our Saviour; who detecting his insidious intentions, termed him *a fox* (Luke xiii. 32.), and who was subsequently ridiculed by him and his soldiers. (Luke xxiii. 7—11.) Some years afterwards, Herod aspiring to the regal dignity in Judæa was banished together with his wife, first to Lyons in Gaul, and thence into Spain.¹

V. PHILIP, tetrarch of Trachonitis, Gaulonitis, and Batanæa, is mentioned but once in the New Testament. (Luke iii. 1.) He is represented by Josephus as an amiable prince, beloved by his subjects, whom he governed with mildness and equity²; on his decease without issue, after a reign of thirty-seven years, his territories were annexed to the province of Syria.³

VI. AGRIPPA, or Herod Agrippa, was the son of Aristobulus, and grandson of Herod the Great, and sustained various reverses of fortune previously to his attaining the royal dignity. At first he resided at Rome as a private person, and ingratiated himself into the favour of the emperor Tiberius; but being accused of wishing him dead that Caligula might reign, he was thrown into prison by order of Tiberius. On the accession of Caligula to the empire, Agrippa was created king of Batanæa and Trachonitis, to which Abilene, Judæa, and Samaria were subsequently added by the emperor Claudius. Returning home to his dominions, he governed them much to the satisfaction of his subjects (for whose gratification he put to death the apostle James, and meditated that of St. Peter, who was miraculously delivered, Acts xii. 2—17), but, being inflated with pride on account of his increasing power and grandeur, he was struck with a noisome and painful disease of which he died at Cæsarea in the manner related by St. Luke. (Acts xii. 21—23.)⁴

VII. AGRIPPA junior was the son of the preceding Herod Agrippa: being only seventeen years of age at the time of his father's death, he was judged to be unequal to the task of governing the whole of his dominions. These were again placed under the

xiv. 9.) Beausobre's Introd. to the New Test. (Bp. Watson's Tracts, vol. iii. p. 123.) The Romans conferred this title on those princes whom they did not choose to elevate to the regal dignity; the Tetrarch was lower in point of rank than a Roman governor of a province. Schulzii Archæol. Hebr. pp. 18, 19. Jahn, Archæol. Bibl. p. 338.

¹ Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xviii. c. 7.

² Ibid. lib. xvii. c. viii. § 1. lib xviii. c. v. § 4. De Bell. Jud. lib. i. c. xxxiii. § 8. lib. ii. c. vi. § 3.

³ Ibid. lib. xviii. c. 4. § 6.

⁴ Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xviii. c. 5—8.

direction of a Roman procurator or governor, and Agrippa was first King of Chalcis, and afterwards of Batanæa, Trachonitis, and Abilene, to which other territories were subsequently added.¹ It was before this Agrippa and his sister Berenice, that St. Paul delivered his masterly defence. (Acts xxvi.)

SECTION II.

POLITICAL STATE OF THE JEWS UNDER THE ROMAN PROCURATORS, TO THE SUBVERSION OF THEIR CIVIL AND ECCLESIASTICAL POLITY.

I. Powers and Functions of the Roman Procurators.—II. Political and Civil State of the Jews under their Administration.—III. Account of Pontius Pilate.—IV. And of the Procurators Felix and Festus.

I. THE Jewish kingdom, which the Romans had created in favour of Herod the Great, was of short duration; expiring on his death, by the division of his territories, and by the dominions of Archelaus, which comprised Samaria, Judæa, and Idumæa, being reduced to a Roman province annexed to Syria, and governed by the Roman procurators. These officers not only had the charge of collecting the imperial revenues but also had the power of life and death in capital causes: and on account of their high dignity they are sometimes called governors (ἡγεμόνες). They usually had a council, consisting of their friends and other chief Romans in the province; with whom they conferred on important questions.² During the continuance of the Roman republic, it was very unusual for the governors of provinces to take their wives with them. Augustus³ disapproved of the introduction of this practice, which however was in some instances permitted by Tiberius. Thus Agrippina accompanied Germanicus⁴ into Germany and Asia, and Plancina was with Piso, whose insolence towards Germanicus she contributed to inflame⁵: and though Cæcina Severus afterwards offered a motion to the senate, to prohibit this indulgence, (on account of the serious inconveniences,—not to say abuses, that would result from the political influence which the wives might exercise over their husbands,) his motion was rejected⁶, and they continued to attend the procurators to their respective provinces.

¹ Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xix. c. 9. De Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. 12, 13.

² Josephus, (Ant. Jud. lib. xx. c. 4. § 4. and de Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. 16. § 1.) mentions instances in which the Roman procurators thus took council with their assessors.

³ Suetonius, in Augusto. c. 24.

⁴ Tacitus, Annal. lib. ii. c. 54, 55. lib. i. c. 40, 41.

⁵ Ibid. lib. i. c. 40.

⁶ Ibid. lib. iii. c. 33, 34.

This circumstance will account for Pilate's wife being at Jerusalem. (Matt. xxvii. 19.)

The procurators of Judæa resided principally at Cæsarea¹, which was reputed to be the metropolis of that country, and occupied the splendid palace which Herod the Great had erected there. On the great festivals, or when any tumults were apprehended, they repaired to Jerusalem, that, by their presence and influence, they might restore order. For this purpose they were accompanied by *cohorts* (Σπειραι, Acts x. 1.) or bands of soldiers, not legionary cohorts, but distinct companies of military: each of them was about one thousand strong.² Six of these cohorts were constantly garrisoned in Judæa; five at Cæsarea, and one at Jerusalem, part of which was quartered in the tower of Antonia, so as to command the temple, and part in the prætorium or governor's palace.

These procurators were Romans, sometimes of the equestrian order, and sometimes freedmen of the emperor: Felix (Acts xxiii. 24—26. xxvi. 3. 22—27.) was a freedman of the emperor Claudius³, with whom he was in high favour. These governors were sent, not by the senate, but by the Cæsars themselves, into those provinces which were situated on the confines of the empire, and were placed at the emperor's own disposal. Their duties consisted in collecting and remitting tribute, in the administration of justice, and the repression of tumults: some of them held independent jurisdictions, while others were subordinate to the proconsul or governor of the nearest province. Thus Judæa was annexed to the province of Syria.

II. The Jews endured their subjection to the Romans with great reluctance, on account of the tribute which they were obliged to pay: but in all other respects they enjoyed a large measure of national liberty. It appears from the whole tenor of the New Testament, (for the particular passages are too numerous to be cited⁴) that they practised their own religious rites, worshipped in the temple and in their synagogues, followed their own customs, and lived very much according to their own laws. Thus they had their high priests, and council or senate; they inflicted lesser punishments; they could apprehend men and bring them before the council; and if a guard of soldiers was necessary, could be assisted by them, on requesting them of the governor. Further they could bind men and keep them in custody; the council could likewise summon witnesses and take examinations; they could excommunicate persons, and they could inflict scourging in their synagogue (Deut. xxv. 3. Matt. x. 17. Mark xiii. 9.); they enjoyed the privilege of referring litigated questions to referees, whose decisions in reference to them

¹ Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xviii. § 3. § 1. lib. xx. c. 5. § 4. De Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. 9. § 2. Tacit. Hist. lib. ii. c. 79.

² Biscoe on the Acts, vol. i. pp. 330—335.

³ Suetonius in Claudio, c. xxviii.

⁴ See Dr. Lardner's Credibility, part i. book ii. c. ii. where the various passages are adduced and fully considered.

the Roman prætor was bound to see put in execution.¹ Beyond this however, they were not allowed to go; for, when they had any capital offenders, they carried them before the procurator, who usually paid a regard to what they stated, and, if they brought evidence of the fact, pronounced sentence according to their laws. He was the proper judge in all capital causes; for, after the council of the Jews had taken under their consideration the case of Jesus Christ, which they pretended was of this kind, they went with it immediately to the governor, who re-examined it and pronounced sentence. That they had not the power of life and death is evident from Pilate's granting to them the privilege of judging, but not of condemning Jesus Christ, and also from their acknowledgment to Pilate—*It is not lawful for us to put any man to death* (John xviii. 31.); and likewise from the power vested in Pilate of releasing a condemned criminal to them at the passover (John xviii. 39, 40.), which he could not have done if he had not had the power of life and death, as well as from his own declaration that he had power to crucify and power to release Jesus Christ.² (John xix. 10.)

III. Of the various procurators that governed Judæa under the Romans, PONTIUS PILATE is the best known, and most frequently mentioned in the sacred writings. He is supposed to have been a native of Italy, and was sent to govern Judæa about the year A. D. 26 or '27. Pilate is characterised by Josephus as an unjust and cruel governor, sanguinary, obstinate, and impetuous; who disturbed the tranquillity of Judæa by persisting in carrying into Jerusalem the effigies of Tiberius Cæsar that were upon the Roman ensigns, and by other acts of oppression, which produced tumults among the Jews.³ Dreading the extreme jealousy and suspicion of Tiberius he delivered up the Redeemer to be crucified, contrary to the conviction of his better judgment; and in the vain hope of con-

¹ Cod. lib. i. tit. 9. l. 8. de Judæis. — As the Christians were at first regarded as a sect of the Jews, they likewise enjoyed the same privilege. This circumstance will account for Saint Paul's blaming the Corinthian Christians for carrying their causes before the Roman prætor, instead of leaving them to referees chosen from among their brethren. 1 Cor. vi. 1—7.)

² The celebrated Roman jurist, Ulpian, states that the governors of the Roman provinces had the right of the sword; which implied the authority of punishing malefactors; — an authority which was personal, and not to be transferred. (Lib. vi. c. 8. de Officio Proconsulis.) And Josephus states (De Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. 8. s. 1.) that Coponius, who was sent to govern Judæa as a province after the banishment of Archelaus, was invested by Augustus with the power of life and death. (Dr. Gray's Connexion of Sacred and Profane Literature, vol. i. p. 273. See also Dr. Lardner's Credibility, c. ii. § 6.) The case of the Jews stoning Stephen (Acts vii. 56, 57.) has been urged by some learned men as a proof that the former had the power of life and death, but the circumstances of that case do not support this assertion. Stephen, it is true, had been examined before the great council, who had heard witnesses against him, but no where do we read that they had collected votes or proceeded to the giving of sentence, or even to pronounce him guilty: all which ought to have been done, if the proceedings had been regular. Before Stephen could finish his defence, a sudden tumult arose; the people who were present rushed with violence upon him, and casting him out of the city, stoned him before the affair could be taken before the Roman procurator. Pritii Introd. ad. Nov. Test. p. 592.

³ Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xviii. c. 3. § 1, 2.

ciliating the Jews whom he had oppressed. After he had held his office for ten years, having caused a number of innocent Samaritans to be put to death, that injured people sent an embassy to Vitellius, proconsul of Syria; by whom he was ordered to Rome, to give an account of his mal-administration to the emperor. But Tiberius being dead before he arrived there, his successor Caligula banished him to Gaul, where he is said to have committed suicide about the year of Christ 41.¹

IV. On the death of king Herod Agrippa, Judæa being again reduced to a Roman province, the government of it was confided to ANTONIUS FELIX; who had originally been the slave, then the freedman of Nero, and, through the influence of his brother Pallas, also a freedman of that emperor, was raised to the dignity of procurator of Judæa. He liberated that country from banditti and impostors (the *very worthy deeds* alluded to by Tertullus, Acts xxiv. 2.); but he was in other respects a cruel and avaricious governor, incontinent, intemperate, and unjust. So oppressive at length did his administration become, that the Jews accused him before Nero, and it was only through the powerful interposition of Pallas that Felix escaped condign punishment. His wife, Drusilla, (mentioned in Acts xxiv. 24.) was the sister of Agrippa junior, and had been married to Azizus king of the Emesenes: Felix, having fallen desperately in love with her, persuaded her to abandon her legitimate husband and live with him.² The knowledge of these circumstances materially illustrates Acts xxiv. 25. and shews with what singular propriety St. Paul reasoned of righteousness, temperance, and a judgment to come. On the resignation of Felix, A. D. 60, the government of Judæa was committed to PORTIUS FESTUS, before whom Paul defended himself against the accusations of the Jews (Acts xxv.), and appealed from his tribunal to that of Cæsar. Finding his province overrun with robbers and murderers, Festus strenuously exerted himself in suppressing their outrages. He died in Judæa about the year 62.³

The situation of the Jews under the procurators was truly deplorable, particularly the two last mentioned. Distracted by tumults, excited on various occasions, their country was overrun with robbers that plundered all the villages whose inhabitants refused to listen to their persuasions to shake off the Roman yoke. Justice was sold to the highest bidder; and even the sacred office of high priest was exposed to sale. But, of all the procurators, no one abused his power more than GESSIUS FLORUS, a cruel and sanguinary governor, and so extremely avaricious that he shared with the robbers in their booty, and allowed them to follow their nefarious practices with impunity. Hence considerable numbers of the wretched Jews,

¹ Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xviii. c. 4. Eusebius Hist. Eccl. lib. ii. c. 7, 8.

² Tacit. Annal. lib. xii. c. 54. Hist. lib. v. c. 9. Sueton. in Claudio, c. 38. Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xx. c. 7. § 2. c. 8. § 5. De Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. 12. § 8.

³ Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xx. c. 8. § 9, 10. De Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. 14. § 1.

with their families, abandoned their native country; while those who remained, being driven to desperation, took up arms against the Romans, and thus commenced that war, which terminated in the destruction of Judæa, and the *taking away of their name and nation*.¹

CHAPTER III.

COURTS OF JUDICATURE, LEGAL PROCEEDINGS, AND CRIMINAL LAW OF THE JEWS.

SECTION I.

JEWISH COURTS OF JUDICATURE AND LEGAL PROCEEDINGS.

I. *Inferior Judges.* — II. *Seat of Justice.* — III. *Appeals* — *Constitution of the Sanhedrin or Great Council.* — IV. *Time of Trials.* — *Form of Legal Proceedings among the Jews.* — 1. *Citation of the Parties.* — 2, 3. *Form of Pleading in civil and criminal cases.* — 4. *Witnesses.* — 5. *The Lot, in what cases used judicially.* — 6. *Forms of Acquittal.* — 7. *Summary Justice, sometimes clamorously demanded.* — V. *Execution of Sentences, by whom, and in what manner performed.*

I. ON the settlement of the Israelites in the land of Canaan, Moses commanded them to *appoint judges and officers in all their gates, throughout their tribes* (Deut. xvi. 18.); whose duty it was to exercise judicial authority in the neighbouring villages; but weighty causes and appeals were carried before the supreme judge or ruler of the commonwealth. (Deut. xvii. 8, 9.) According to Josephus, these inferior judges were seven in number, men zealous in the exercise of virtue and righteousness. To each judge (that is, to each college of judges in every city) two officers were assigned out of the tribe of Levi.² These judges existed in the time of that historian³, and, although the rabbinical writers are silent concerning them, yet their silence neither does, nor can outweigh the evidence of an eyewitness and magistrate, who himself appointed such judges.

The Priests and Levites, who from their being devoted to the study of the law, were consequently best skilled in its various precepts, and old men, who were eminent for their age and virtue, administered justice to the people: in consequence of their age, the

¹ Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xx. c. 8. 11. De Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. 9, 10.

² Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. iv. c. 14. Schulzii Prolusio de variis Judæorum erroribus in Descriptione Templi II. § xv. pp. 27–32., prefixed to his edition of Ireland's *Treatise De Spoliis Templi Hierosolymitani Trajecti ad Rhenum, 1775, 8vo.*

³ Josephus, De Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. 20. § 5.

name of *elders* became attached to them. Many instances of this kind occur in the New Testament ; they were also called *rulers*, *αρχοντες*. (Luke xii. 58. where ruler is synonymous with judge.¹) The law of Moses contained the most express prohibitions of bribery (Exod. xxiii. 8.), and partiality ; enjoining them to administer justice without respect of persons, and reminding them, that a judge sits in the seat of God, and consequently that no man ought to have any pre-eminence in his sight, neither ought he to be afraid of any man in declaring the law. (Exod. xxiii. 3. 6, 7. Lev. xix. 15. Deut. i. 17. xvi. 18, 19.) The prophet Amos (viii. 6.) reproaches the corrupt judges of his time, with taking not only silver, but even so trifling an article of dress as a pair of (wooden) sandals, as a bribe, to condemn the innocent poor who could not afford to make them a present of equal value. Turkish officers and their wives in Asia, to this day, go richly clothed in costly silks given them by those who have causes depending before them.² It is probable, at least in the early ages after the settlement of the Jews in Canaan, that their judges rode on *white* asses, by way of distinction (Judg. v. 10.), as the *Mollahs* or men of the law do to this day in Persia³, and the heads of families returning from their pilgrimage to Mecca.⁴

II. In the early ages of the world, the *gate of the city* was the seat of justice, where conveyances of titles and estates were made, complaints were heard and justice done, and all public business was transacted. Thus Abraham made the acquisition of his sepulchre in the presence of all those who entered in *at the gate of the city* of Hebron. (Gen. xxiii. 10. 18.) When Hamor and his son Schem proposed to make an alliance with Jacob and his sons, they spoke of it to the people at the *gate of the city*. (Gen. xxxiv. 24.) In later times Boaz, having declared his intention of marrying Ruth, *at the gate* of Bethlehem caused her kinsman to resign his pretensions, and give him the proper conveyance to the estate. (Ruth iv. 1—10.) From the circumstance of the gates of cities being the seat of justice, the judges appear to have been termed the *Elders of the Gate* (Deut. xxii. 15. xxv. 7.); for, as all the Israelites were husbandmen, who went out in the morning to work, and did not return until night, the city gate was the place of greatest resort. By this antient practice, the judges were compelled, by a dread of public displeasure, to be most strictly impartial, and most carefully

¹ Ernesti Institutio Interpretis Novi Testamenti, part iii. c. 10. § 73. p. 356.

² Morier's Second Journey, p. 136.

³ Harmer's Observations, vol. ii. p. 317.

⁴ "We met, one day, a procession, consisting of a family returning from the Pilgrimage to Mecca. Drums and pipes announced the joyful event. A white-bearded old man, riding on a white ass, led the way with patriarchal grace ; and the men who met him or accompanied him, were continually throwing their arms about his neck, and almost dismounting him with their salutations. He was followed by his three wives, each riding on a high camel ; their female acquaintances running on each side, while they occasionally stooped down to salute them. The women continually uttered a remarkably shrill whistle. It was impossible, viewing the old man who led the way, not to remember the expression in Judges v. 10."—Jowett's Christian Researcher, p. 163.

to investigate the merits of the causes which were brought before them. The same practice obtained after the captivity. (Zech. viii. 16.) The Ottoman Court, it is well known, derived its appellation of the *Port*, from the distribution of justice and the dispatch of public business at its gates. During the Arabian monarchy in Spain, the same practice obtained; and the magnificent gate of entrance to the Moorish palace of Alhamrā at Grenada to this day retains the appellation of the *Gate of Justice* or of *Judgment*.¹ To the practice of dispensing justice at the gates of cities, there are numerous allusions in the sacred volume. For instance, in Job v. 4. the children of the wicked are said to be *crushed in the gate*; that is, they lose their cause, and are condemned in the court of judgment. The psalmist (cxxxvii. 5.) speaking of those whom God has blessed with many children, says that *they shall not be ashamed, but they shall speak with the enemies in the gate*; that is, those who are thus blessed, shall courageously plead their cause, and need not fear the want of justice when they meet their adversaries in the court of judicature. Compare Prov. xxii. 22. and xxxi. 23. Lament. v. 14. Amos v. 12., in all which passages the *gate*, and *elders of the land* or *of the gate*, respectively denote the seat of justice and the judges who presided there. And as the gates of a city constituted its strength, and as the happiness of a people depended much upon the wisdom and integrity of the judges who sat there, it may be that our Saviour alluded to this circumstance, when he said *The gates of hell shall not prevail against his church* (Matt. xvi. 18.); that is, neither the strength nor policy of Satan or his instruments shall ever be able to overcome it.

III. From these inferior tribunals, appeals lay to a higher court, in cases of importance. (Deut. xvii. 8—12.) In Jerusalem, it is not improbable that there were superior courts in which David's sons presided. Psal. cxxii. 5. seems to allude to them: though we do not find that a supreme tribunal was established at Jerusalem earlier than in the reign of Jehoshaphat. (2 Chron. xix. 8—11.) It was composed of priests and heads of families, and had two presidents,—one in the person of the high priest, and another who sat in the name of the king. The judicial establishment was re-organised after the captivity, and two classes of judges, inferior and superior, were appointed. (Ezra vii. 25.) But the more difficult cases and appeals were brought, either before the ruler of the state, or before the high priest; until, in the age of the Maccabees, a supreme judicial tribunal was instituted, which is first mentioned under Hyrcanus II.²

This tribunal (which must not be confounded with the seventy-two counsellors, who were appointed to assist Moses in the civil administration of the government, but who never fulfilled the office of judges,) is by the Talmudists denominated SANHEDRIN, and is

¹ Murphy's Arabian Antiquities of Spain, plates xiv. xv. pp. 8, 9.

² Josephus, Ant. Jud: lib. xiv. c. 9. § 3.

the great Council so often mentioned in the New Testament. It was instituted in the time of the Maccabees, and was composed of seventy or seventy-two members, under the chief presidency of the high priest, under whom were two vice-presidents; the first of whom, called the *Father of the Council*, sat on the right, as the second vice-president did on the left hand of the president. The other assessors, or members of this council, comprised three descriptions of persons, viz. 1. The Ἀρχιερεῖς, or *Chief Priests*, who were partly such priests as had executed the Pontificate, and partly the princes or chiefs of the twenty-four *courses* or classes of priests, who enjoyed this honourable title: — 2. The Πρεσβυτεροὶ or *Elders*, perhaps the princes of tribes or heads of families; — and 3. The Γραμματεῖς, *Scribes* or men learned in the law. It does not appear that all the elders and scribes were members of this tribunal: most probably, those only were assessors, who were either elected to the office, or nominated to it by royal authority.

The Talmudical writers assert that the Sanhedrin held its sittings in the Temple; but they are contradicted by Josephus¹, who speaks of a council house in the immediate vicinity of the temple, where this council was in all probability convened; though in extraordinary emergencies it was assembled in the high priest's house, as was the case in the mock trial of Jesus Christ. The authority of this tribunal was very extensive. It decided all causes, which were brought before it, by appeal from inferior courts: and also took cognizance of the general affairs of the nation. Before Judæa was subject to the Roman power, the Sanhedrin had the right of judging in capital cases, but not afterwards; the stoning of Stephen being (as we have already observed) a tumultuary act, and not in consequence of sentence pronounced by this Council.

Besides the Sanhedrin, the Talmudical writers assert that there were other smaller councils, each consisting of twenty-three persons, who heard and determined petty causes: two of these were at Jerusalem, and one in every city containing one hundred and twenty inhabitants. Josephus is silent concerning these tribunals, but they certainly appear to have existed in the time of Jesus Christ; who, by images taken from these two courts, in a very striking manner represents the different degrees of future punishments, to which the impenitently wicked will be doomed according to the respective heinousness of their crimes. *But I say unto you, that whosoever is angry with his brother without a cause, shall be in danger of the JUDGMENT; and whosoever shall say to his brother, Raca, shall be in danger of the COUNCIL; but whosoever shall say, Thou fool, shall be in danger of HELL FIRE.* (Matt. v. 22.) That is, whosoever shall indulge causeless and unprovoked resentment against his Christian brother, shall be punished with a severity similar to that which is inflicted by the *court of judgment*. He, who shall suffer his passions to

¹ De Bell. Jud. lib. v. c. 4. § 2. lib. vi. c. 6. § 3.

transport him to greater extravagances, so as to make his brother the object of derision and contempt, shall be exposed to a still severer punishment, corresponding to that which the *Council* imposes. But he who shall load his fellow Christian with odious appellations and abusive language, shall incur the severest degree of all punishments, — equal to that of being burnt alive in the valley of Hinnom: — which, having formerly been the scene of those horrid sacrifices of children to Moloch by causing them to pass through the fire, the Jews in our Saviour's time used to denote the place of the damned.

It is essential to the ends of justice, that the proceedings of the courts should be committed to writing, and preserved in archives or registries: Josephus informs us that there was such a repository at Jerusalem, which was burnt by the Romans¹, and which was furnished with scribes or notaries, for recording the proceedings. From this place, probably, St. Luke derived his account of the proceedings against the protomartyr Stephen, related in Acts vi. and vii. These tribunals also had inferior *ministers* or *officers* (*υπηρεται*, Matt. v. 25.), who probably corresponded with our apparitors or messengers; and others whose office it was to carry the decrees into execution, viz. 1. The *πρακτορες*, or *exactors*, whose business it was to levy the fines imposed by the court; and 2. The *βαταμισαι*, or *tormentors*, those whose office it was to examine by torture: as this charge was devolved on jailors, in the time of Christ, the word *βαταμισης* came to signify a jailor.²

IV. It appears from Jer. xxi. 12. that causes were heard, and judgment was executed in the morning. According to the Talmud³ capital causes were prohibited from being heard in the night, as also were the institution of an examination, pronouncing of sentence, and the carrying of it into execution, on one and the same day; and it was enjoined that at least the execution of a sentence should be deferred until the following day. How flagrantly this injunction was disregarded in the case of Jesus Christ, it is scarcely necessary to mention. According to the Talmud also, no judgments could be executed on festival days; but this by no means agrees with the end and design of capital punishment expressed in Deut. xvii. 13. viz. *That all the people might hear and fear*. It is evident from Matt. xxvi. 5. that the chief priests and other leading men among the Jews were at first afraid to apprehend Jesus, lest there should be a tumult among the people: it is not improbable that they feared the Galilæans more than the populace of Jerusalem, because they were the countrymen of our Lord. Afterwards, however, when the traitor Judas presented himself to them, their fears vanished away.

In the early ages of the Jewish history, judicial procedure must have been summary, as it still is in Asia.⁴ Of advocates, such as

¹ Josephus, De Bell. Jud. lib. vi. c. 3. § 3.

² Schleüsner's and Parkhurst's Lexicon, in voce.

³ Sanhedrin, IV.

⁴ And also among the Marootze nation inhabiting the interior of South-Africa.

ours, there is no appearance in any part of the Old Testament. Every one pleaded his own cause; of this practice we have a memorable instance in 1 Kings iii. 16—28. As causes were heard at the city gate, where the people assembled to hear news or to pass away their time, Michaelis thinks that men of experience and wisdom might be asked for their opinions in difficult cases, and might sometimes assist with their advice those who seemed embarrassed in their own cause, even when it was a good one. Probably this is alluded to in Job xxix. 7—17. and Isa. i. 17.¹ From the Romans, the use of advocates, or patrons who pleaded the cause of another, might have passed to the Jews. In this view the word παρακλητος, or advocate, is applied to Christ, our *intercessor*, who *pleads the cause of sinners* with his father. (1 John ii. 1.) The form of proceeding appears to have been as follows:

1. Those who were summoned before courts of judicature, were said to be προγεγραμμενοι εις χρισιν, because they were cited by posting up their names in some public place, and to these judgment was published or declared in writing. The Greek writers applied the term προγεγραμμενους, to those whom the Romans called *proscriptos* or *proscribed*, that is, whose names were posted up in writing in some public place, as persons doomed to die, with a reward offered to whoever would kill them. To this usage there is an allusion in the epistle of Jude (verse 4.), where the persons who are said to be προγεγραμμενοι εις τουτο το κριμα, *fore written to, or before described for, to this condemnation*, denote those who were long before described, in the examples of their wickedness contained in the writings of Moses and the Prophets, such as the angels that sinned, the antediluvians, the people of Sodom, &c. And in the condemnation of these sinners God has shewn what he will do to all others like them.² In the sacred writings all false teachers and impure practices have been most openly proscribed and condemned, and in the following verses of the same epistle the apostle distinctly specifies who these persons are.

2. He, who entered the action, went to the judges, and stated his affair to them: and then they sent officers with him to seize the party and bring him to justice. To this our Lord alludes, when he says, (Matt. v. 25.) *Agree with thine adversary while thou art in the way with him*, before thou art brought before the judge, lest thou be condemned. On the day appointed for hearing the cause, the plaintiff and defendant presented themselves before the judges; who at first sat alone. (Deut. xxv. 1.) In later times, the Jewish writers inform us, that there were always two notaries belonging to the

Campbell's Travels in the interior of South Africa, vol. ii. p. 236. (London, 1822. 8vo.) From this, and other coincidences with Jewish observances, Mr. C. thinks it probable that the Marootzee are of Jewish or Arabian origin.

¹ Commentaries on the Laws of Moses, vol. iv. pp. 320—323.

² Parkhurst and Schleusner's Lexicon to the New Testament, voce Προγραφο. Boothroyd on Jude, 4.

court, one of whom stood on the right hand of the judge, who wrote the sentence of acquittal; and the other, on his left hand, who wrote the sentence of condemnation. To this custom probably our Saviour referred (Matt. xxv. 33.) when, speaking of the last judgment, he says, that he will *set the sheep on his right hand*, in order to be acquitted, *and the goats on his left*, in order to be condemned. It appears that the judicial decrees were (as they still are in the East) first written by a notary, and then authenticated or annulled by the magistrate. To this the prophet Isaiah alludes when he denounces *a woe unto them that decree unrighteous decrees, and to the writers that write grievousness*. (Isa. x. 1. marginal rendering.)¹ The judges sat, while the defendants stood, particularly during the examination of witnesses. Thus, *Jasus stood before the governor*. (Matt. xxvii. 11.)

3. In criminal cases, when the trial came on, the judge's first care was to exhort the criminal to confess his crime, if he really were guilty: Thus Joshua exhorted Achan to *give glory to the Lord God of Israel, and make confession unto him*. (Josh. vii. 19.) To this custom of the Jews, St. Paul seems to allude, when he says, *Happy is he that condemneth not himself in that thing which he alloweth* (Rom. xiv. 22.); that is, who being convinced of the truth of a thing, does not really and effectually condemn himself in the sight of God by denying it. After the accusation was laid before the court, the criminal was heard in his defence, and therefore Nicodemus said to the chief priests and pharisees, *Doth our law judge any man before it hear him, and know what he doth?* (John vii. 51.) If, during the trial, the defendant, or supposed criminal, said any thing that displeased either the judge or his accuser, it was not unusual for the latter to smite him on the face. This was the case with Saint Paul (Acts xxiii. 2.); and the same brutal conduct prevails in Persia to this day.²

* 4. In matters of life and death, the evidence of one witness was not sufficient: in order to establish a charge, it was necessary to have the testimony of two or three credible and unimpeachable witnesses. (Numb. xxxv. 30. Deut. xvii. 6, 7. xix. 15.) Though the law of Moses is silent concerning the evidence of women, Josephus says that it was prohibited on account of the levity and boldness of their sex! He also adds that the testimony of servants was inadmissible, on account of the probability of their being influenced to speak what was untrue, either from hope of gain or fear of punishment. Most likely, this was the exposition of the scribes and pharisees, and the practice of the Jews, in the last age of their political existence.³ In general, the witnesses to be sworn did not pronounce the formula of the oath, either when it was a judicial one, or taken on any other solemn occasion. A formula was read, to which they said *Amen*.

¹ Harmer's Observations, vol. ii. pp. 519—521.

² Morier's Second Tour, p. 95. Hannay's Travels, vol. i. p. 299.

³ Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. ii. c. 8. § 15.

Lev. v. 1. 1 Kings viii. 31.) Referring to this usage, when Jesus Christ was abjured or put upon his oath, he immediately made an answer. (Matt. xxvi. 63.) All manner of false witness was most severely prohibited. (Exod. xx. 16. xxiii. 1—3.)

5. In questions of property, in default of any other means of decision, recourse was had to the lot. In this manner, it will be recollected that the land of Canaan was divided by Joshua, to which there are so many allusions in the Old Testament, particularly in the book of Psalms. And it should seem, from Prov. xvi. 33. and xviii. 18. that it was used in courts of justice, in the time of Solomon, though probably only with the consent of both parties. In criminal cases, recourse was had to the sacred lot, called *Urim and Thummim*, in order to discover, not to convict the guilty party (Josh. vii. 14—18. 1 Sam. xiv. 37—45.); but it appears to have been used only in the case of an oath being transgressed, which the whole people had taken, or the leader of the host in their name.

A peculiar mode of eliciting the truth was employed in the case of a woman suspected of adultery. She was to be brought by her husband to the tabernacle, — afterwards to the temple; where she took an oath of purgation, imprecating tremendous punishment upon herself. The form of this process (which was the foundation of the trial by ordeal that so generally prevailed in the dark ages) is detailed at length in Numb. v. 11—31., to which the rabbinical writers have added a variety of frivolous ceremonies. If innocent, the woman suffered no inconvenience or injury; but if guilty, the punishment which she had imprecated on herself immediately overtook her.

6. Sentences were only pronounced in the day time; of which circumstance notice is taken in Saint Luke's narrative of our Saviour's mock trial. (xxii. 66.) It was the custom among the Jews to pronounce sentence of condemnation in this manner. — *He is guilty of death.* (Matt. xxvi. 66.) In other countries, a person's condemnation was announced to him by giving him a *black* stone, and his acquittal by giving him a *white* stone. Ovid mentions this practice thus:

Mos erat antiquus, niveis atrisque lapillis,

His damnare reos, illis absolvere culpâ.

Nunc quoque sic luta est sententia tristis —

MET. lib. xv. 41—43.

A custom was of old, and still obtains,

Which life or death by suffrages ordains:

White stones and black within an urn are cast;

The first absolve, but fate is in the last.

DRYDEN.

In allusion to this custom, some critics¹ have supposed that our Saviour (Rev. ii. 17.) promises to give the spiritual conqueror a *white stone*, and on the stone a new name written, which no man knoweth, saving he that receiveth it; which may be supposed to signify — *Well done, thou good and faithful servant.* The white stones

¹ Wetstein, Doddridge, and Dean Wodhousp on Rev. ii. 17.

of the *antients* were inscribed with characters ; and so is the white stone mentioned in the Apocalypse. According to Persius, the letter Θ was the token of condemnation :

Et potis es *nigrum* vitio prefigere Theta.

SAT. iv. 13.

Fixing thy stigma on the brow of vice.

DRUMMOND.

But, as there was a new name inscribed on the white stone given by our Lord, *which no man knoweth but he who receiveth it*, it should rather seem that the allusion in this passage is to the *tessera hospitalis*, of which the reader will find an account *infra*, in the close of Chap. VI. of Part IV. of this volume.

7, Such were the judicial proceedings in ordinary cases, when the forms of law were observed. On some occasions, however, when particular persons were obnoxious to the populace, it was usual for them to demand prompt justice upon the supposed delinquents. It is well known that in Asia, to this day, those who demand justice against a criminal, repair in large bodies to the gate of the royal residence, where they make horrid cries, tearing their garments and throwing dust into the air. This circumstance throws great light upon the conduct of the Jews towards Saint Paul, when the chief captain of the Roman garrison at Jerusalem presented himself to them. (Acts xxii. 28—36.) When they found the apostle in the temple, prejudiced as they were against him in general, and at that time particularly irritated by the mistaken notion that he had polluted the holy place by the introduction of Greeks into it, they raised a tumult, and were on the point of inflicting summary vengeance on Saint Paul. As soon as the chief captain of the Roman soldiers, who resided in a castle adjoining the temple, heard the tumult, he hastened thither. They then ceased beating the apostle, and addressed themselves to him as the chief official person there, exclaiming, *Away with him*. Permission being at length given to Paul to explain the affair in their hearing, they became still more violently enraged, but not daring to do themselves justice, they demanded it nearly in the same manner as the Persian peasants now do, by loud vociferations, tearing off their clothes and throwing up dust into the air.¹

V. As soon as sentence of condemnation was pronounced against a person, he was immediately dragged from the court to the place of execution. Thus our Lord was instantly hurried from the presence of Pilate to Calvary : a similar instance of prompt execution occurred in the case of Achan ; and the same practice obtains to this day, both in Turkey and Persia. In those countries, when the enemies of a great man have sufficient influence to procure a warrant for his death, a *capidgi* or executioner is despatched with it to the

¹ Harmer's Observations, vol. iii. pp. 367—369.

victim, who quietly submits to his fate.¹ Nearly the same method of executing criminals was used by the antient Jewish princes. It is evidently alluded to in Prov. xvi. 14. Thus, Benaiah was the capidgi (to use the modern Turkish term,) who was sent by Solomon to put to death Adonijah, a prince of the blood royal (1 Kings ii. 25.), and also Joab the commander in chief of the army. (29—31.) John the Baptist was put to death in like manner. (Matt. xiv. 10.) Previously, however, to executing the criminal, it was usual, among the antient Persians, to cover his head, that he might not behold the face of the sovereign. Thus, the head of Philotas, who had conspired against Alexander the Great, was covered²; and in conformity with this practice, the head of Haman was veiled or covered. (Esth. vii. 8.)

So zealous were the Jews for the observance of their law, that they were not ashamed themselves to be the executioners of it, and to punish criminals with their own hands. In stoning persons, the witnesses threw the first stones, agreeably to the enactment of Moses. (Deut. xvii. 7.) Thus, the witnesses against the protomartyr Stephen, after laying down their clothes at the feet of Saul, stoned him (Acts vii. 58, 59.); and to this custom our Saviour alludes, when he said to the Pharisees, who had brought to him a woman who had been taken in adultery,—*He that is without sin among you, let him first cast a stone at her.* (John viii. 7.) As there were no public executioners in the more antient periods of the Jewish history, it was not unusual for persons of distinguished rank themselves to put the sentence in execution upon offenders. Thus, Samuel put Agag to death (1 Sam. xv. 33.); and in like manner Nebuchadnezzar ordered Arioch the commander in chief of his forces to destroy the wise men of Babylon, because they could not interpret his dream. (Dan. ii. 24.) Previously, however, to inflicting punishment, it was a custom of the Jews, that the witnesses should lay their hands on the criminal's head. This custom originated in an express precept of God, in the case of one who had blasphemed the name of Jehovah, who was ordered to be brought without the camp: when all, who had heard him, were appointed to lay their hands upon his head, and afterwards the congregation were to stone him. By this action they signified, that the condemned person suffered justly, protesting that, if he were innocent, they desired that his blood might fall on their own head. In allusion to this usage, when sentence was pronounced against Jesus Christ, the Jews exclaimed,—*His blood be upon us and our children.* (Matt. xxvii. 25.) From the above noticed precept of bringing the criminals without the camp, arose the custom of executing them without the city.

But in whatever manner the criminal was put to death, according to the Talmudical writers, the Jews always gave him some wine with incense in it, in order to stupify and intoxicate him. This cus-

¹ Harmer's Observations, vol. ii. pp. 372—376.

² Quintus Curtius, lib. vi. c. 8. tom. ii. p. 34. edit. Bipont.

tom is said to have originated in the precept recorded in Prov. xxxi. 6., which sufficiently explains the reason why wine, mingled with myrrh, was offered to Jesus Christ when on the cross. (Mark xv. 23.) In the latter ages of the Jewish polity, this medicated cup of wine, was so generally given before execution, that the word *cup* is sometimes put in the Scriptures for *death* itself. Thus, Jesus Christ, in his last prayer in the garden of Gethsemane, said—*If it be possible let this CUP pass from me.* (Matt. xxvi. 39. 42.)

SECTION II.

OF THE ROMAN JUDICATURE, MANNER OF TRIAL, AND TREATMENT OF PRISONERS, AS MENTIONED IN THE NEW TESTAMENT.

I. *Judicial proceedings of the Romans.*—II. *Privileges and treatment of Roman citizens, when prisoners.*—III. *Appeals to the imperial tribunal.*—IV. *The Roman method of fettering and confining criminals.*—V. *The Roman tribunals.*—VI. *The Areopagus of the Athenians.*

WHEREVER the Romans extended their power, they also carried their laws; and though, as we have already seen, they allowed their conquered subjects to enjoy the free performance of their religious worship, as well as the holding of some inferior courts of judicature, yet in all cases of a capital nature the tribunal of the Roman prefect or president was the last resort. Without his permission, no person could be put to death, at least in Judæa. And as we find numerous allusions in the New Testament to the Roman Judicature, manner of trial, treatment of prisoners, and infliction of capital punishment, a brief account of these subjects so intimately connected with the political state of Judæa under the Romans, naturally claims a place in the present sketch.¹

I. “The judicial proceedings of the Romans were conducted in a manner worthy the majesty, honour, and magnanimity of that people. Instances indeed occur of a most scandalous venality and corruption in Roman judges, and the story of Jugurtha and Verres will stand, a lasting monument of the power of gold to pervert justice and shelter the most atrocious villany. But in general in the Roman judicatures, both in the imperial city and in the provinces, justice

¹ The materials of this section are principally derived from Dr. Harwood's Introduction to the New Testament (a work now of rare occurrence), vol. ii. section xvi. the texts cited being carefully verified and corrected. The subjects of this and the following section are also discussed by Dr. Lardner, *Credibility*, part i. book i. c. x. § 9—12; and especially by Calmet in his elaborate *Dissertation sur les supplices dont il est parlé dans l'Écriture*, inserted in his *Commentaire Littéral*, tom. i. part ii. pp. 387—466. See also Merrill's *Notæ Philologicæ in passionem Christi*, and Wyssenbach's *Notæ Nomico-Philologicæ in passionem*, in vol. iii. of Crenius's *Fasciculus Opusculorum*, pp. 583—691. and Lydius's *Florum Sparsio ad Historiam Passionis Jesu Christi*, 1816, Dordrecht, 1672.

was administered with impartiality; a fair and honourable trial was permitted; the allegations of the plaintiff and defendant were respectively heard; the merits of the cause weighed and scrutinised with cool unbiassed judgment; and an equitable sentence pronounced. The Roman law, in conformity to the first principle of nature and reason, ordained that no one should be condemned and punished without a previous public trial. This was one of the decrees of the twelve tables: *No one shall be condemned before he is tried.*¹ Under the Roman government, both in Italy and in the provinces, this universally obtained. After the cause is heard, says Cicero, a man may be acquitted: but, his cause unheard, no one can be condemned.² To this excellent custom among the Romans, which the law of nature prescribes, and all the principles of equity, honour, and humanity dictate, there are several allusions in Scripture. We find the holy apostles, who did not, like frantic enthusiasts and visionaries, court persecution, but embraced every legal method which the usages and maxims of those times had established to avoid it, and to extricate themselves from calamities and sufferings, pleading this privilege, reminding the Romans of it when they were going to infringe it, and in a spirited manner upbraiding their persecutors with their violation of it. When Lysias, the Roman tribune, ordered Saint Paul to be conducted into the castle, and to be examined by scourging, that he might learn what he had done that enraged the mob thus violently against him, as the soldiers were fastening him with thongs to the pillars to inflict this upon him, Paul said to the centurion who was appointed to attend and see this executed, Doth the Roman law authorise you to scourge a freeman of Rome uncondemned, to punish him before a legal sentence hath been passed upon him? (Acts xxii. 25.) The centurion hearing this went immediately to the tribune, bidding him be cautious how he acted upon the present occasion, for the prisoner was a Roman citizen! The tribune upon this information went to him, and said, Tell me the truth, Are you a freeman of Rome? He answered in the affirmative. It cost me an immense sum, said the tribune, to purchase this privilege.³

¹ Interfici indemnatum quemcunque hominem, etiam xii Tabularum decreta vetuerant. Fragment xii. Tab. tit. 27.

² Causâ cognitâ multi possunt absolvi: incognitâ quidem condemnari nemo potest. In Verrem, lib. i. c. 25. "Producing the laws which ordain that no person shall suffer death without a legal trial." Dion. Halicarn. lib. iii. p. 153. Hudson. "He did not allow them to inflict death on any citizen uncondemned." Ibid. lib. vi. p. 370. lib. vii. p. 428. edit. Hudson, Oxon. 1704. "They thought proper to call him to justice, as it is contrary to the Roman customs to condemn any one to death without a previous trial." Appian. Bell. Civil. lib. iii. p. 906. Tollii, 1670. "Did not you miserably murder Lentulus and his associates, without their being either judged or convicted?" Dion Cassius, lib. 46. p. 463. Reimar.

³ Dion Cassius confirms what the tribune here asserts, that this honour was purchased at a very high price. "The freedom of Rome formerly," says the historian, "could only be purchased for a large sum;" but he observes, "that in the reign of Claudius, when Messalina and his freedmen had the management of every thing, this honour became so cheap that any person might buy it for a little broken glass." Dion Cassius, lib. 60. p. 955. Reimar.

But I was the son of a freeman¹, said the apostle. Immediately, therefore, those who were ordered to examine him by torture desisted; and the tribune was extremely alarmed that he had bound a Roman citizen. In reference to this also, when Paul and Silas were treated with the last indignity at Philippi by the multitude abetted by the magistrates, were beaten with rods, thrown into the public gaol, and their feet fastened in the stocks, the next morning upon the magistrates sending their lictors to the prison with orders to the keeper for the two men whom they had the day before so shamefully and cruelly treated, to be dismissed, Paul turned to the messengers and said, We are Roman citizens. Your magistrates have ordered us to be publicly scourged without a legal trial. They have thrown us into a dungeon. And would they now have us steal away in a silent and clandestine manner? No! Let them come in person and conduct us out themselves. The lictors returned and reported this answer to the governors, who were greatly alarmed and terrified when they understood they were Roman citizens. Accordingly they went in person to the gaol, addressed them with great civility, and begged them in the most respectful terms that they would quietly leave the town. (Acts xvi. 37.)

"Here we cannot but remark the distinguished humanity and honour which St. Paul experienced from the tribune Lysias. His whole conduct towards the apostle was worthy a Roman. This most generous and worthy officer rescued him from the sanguinary fury of the mob, who had seized the apostle, shut the temple doors, and were in a tumultuous manner dragging him away instantly to shed his blood. Afterwards, also, when above forty Jews associated and mutually bound themselves by the most solemn adjurations, that they would neither eat nor drink till they had assassinated him; when the tribune was informed of this conspiracy, to secure the person of the apostle from the determined fury of the Jews, he immediately gave orders for seventy horsemen and two hundred spearmen to escort the prisoner to Cæsarea, where the procurator resided; writing a letter, in which he informed the president of the vindictive rage of the Jews against the prisoner, whom he had snatched from their violence, and whom² he afterwards discovered to be a Roman citizen. In consequence of this epistle Felix gave the apostle a kind and candid reception: when he read it, he turned to him and said, When your accusers come hither before me, I will give your cause an impartial hearing.³ And accordingly when

¹ "But I was free born." Probably St. Paul's family was honoured with the freedom of Rome for engaging in Cæsar's party, and distinguishing themselves in his cause during the civil wars. Appian informs us, that "He made the Laodiceans and Tarsensians free, and exempted them from taxes; and those of the Tarsensians who had been sold for slaves, he ordered by an edict to be released from servitude." Appian de Bell. Civil. p. 1077. Tollii. 1670.

² Acts xxiii. 27. "I have since learned that he is a Roman citizen."
³ iii. 35. Literally, "Hear it through; give the whole of it an attentive ex-
 Similar expressions occur in Pothius, lib. i. pp. 39. 170. 187. lib. iv.
 Hanov. 1619. See also Dion. Hist. art. lib. x. p. 304.

the high priest Ananias and the Sanhedrin went down to Cæsarea with one Tertullus an orator, whose eloquence they had hired to aggravate the apostle's crimes before the procurator; Felix, though a man of a mercenary and profligate character¹, did not depart from the Roman honour in this regard; and would not violate the usual processes of judgment to gratify this body of men, though they were the most illustrious personages of the province he governed, by condemning the apostle unheard, and yielding him poor and friendless as he was, to their fury, merely upon their impeachment. He allowed the apostle to offer his vindication and exculpate himself from the charges they had alleged against him; and was so far satisfied with his apology as to give orders for him to be treated as a prisoner at large, and for all his friends to have free access to him; disappointing those who thirsted for his blood, and drawing down upon himself the relentless indignation of the Jews, who, undoubtedly, from such a disappointment, would be instigated to lay all his crimes and oppressions before the emperor.

“ The same strict honour, in observing the usual forms and processes of the Roman tribunal, appears in Festus the successor of Felix. Upon his entrance into his province, when the leading men among the Jews waited upon him to congratulate him upon his accession, and took that opportunity to inveigh with great bitterness and virulence against the apostle, soliciting it as a favour (Acts xxv. 3.) that he would send him to Jerusalem, designing, as it afterwards appeared, had he complied with their request, to have hired ruffians to murder him on the road, Festus told them, that it was his will that Paul should remain in custody at Cæsarea; but that any persons whom they fixed upon might go down along with him, and produce at his tribunal what they had to allege against the prisoner. This was worthy the Roman honour and spirit. How importunate and urgent the priests and principal magistrates of Jerusalem, when Festus was in this capital, were with him to pass sentence of death upon the apostle merely upon their impeachment, and upon the atrocious crimes with which they loaded him, appears from what the procurator himself told king Agrippa and Bernice upon a visit they paid him at Cæsarea, to congratulate him upon his new government. I have here, said he, a man whom my predecessor left in custody when he quitted this province. During a short visit I paid to Jerusalem, upon my arrival I was solicited by the priests and principal magistrates to pass sentence of death upon him. To these urgent entreaties I replied, that it was not customary for the Romans to gratify (xxv. 16.) any man with the death of another; that the laws of Rome enacted that he who is accused should have his accuser face to face; and have licence to answer for himself concerning the crimes laid against him.²

¹ Felix per omne sævitium ac libidinem, jus regium servili ingenio exercuit. Tacitus Hist. lib. v. p. 397. edit. Dublin. Felix cuncta maleficia impune ratus. Annal. xii. 54. He hoped also that money, &c. Acts xxiv. 26.

² “ Senators,” saith Piso, “ the law ordains that he who is accused should hear his ac-

II. "It appears from numberless passages in the classics that a Roman citizen could not legally be scourged.¹ This was deemed to the last degree dishonourable, the most daring indignity and insult upon the Roman name. 'A Roman citizen, judges!' exclaims Cicero in his oration against Verres, 'was publicly beaten with rods in the forum of Messina: during this public dishonour, no groan, no other expression of the unhappy wretch was heard amidst the cruelties he suffered, and the sound of the strokes that were inflicted, but this, I am a Roman citizen! By this declaration that he was a Roman citizen, he fondly imagined that he should put an end to the ignominy and cruel usage to which he was now subjected.'² The orator afterwards breaks forth into this pathetic prosopopœia: 'O transporting name of liberty! O the distinguished privilege of Roman freedom! O Porcian and Sempronian laws! Are things at last come to this wretched state, that a Roman citizen, in a Roman province, in the most public and open manner, should be beaten with rods!'³ The historian Appian, after relating how Marcellus, to express his scorn and contempt of Cæsar, seized a person of some distinction, to whom Cæsar had given his freedom, and beat him with rods, bidding him go and shew Cæsar the marks of the scourges he had received, observes, that this was an indignity which is never inflicted upon a Roman citizen for any enormity whatever.⁴ Agreeably to this custom, which also obtained at Athens, in the *Adelphi* of Terence, one of the persons of the drama says to another, If you continue to be troublesome and impertinent, you shall be instantly seized and dragged within, and there you shall be torn and mangled with scourges within an inch of your life. What! a freeman scourged, replies Sannio.⁵ To this privilege of Roman citizens, whose freedom exempted them from this indignity and dishonour, there are several references in Scripture. St. Paul pleads this immunity. He said to the centurion, as they were fastening him to the pillar with thongs to inflict upon him this punishment, Is it lawful for you to scourge a Roman?⁶ So also at Philippi he told the messengers

accusation, and after having offered his defence, to wait the sentence of the judges." Appian, *Bell. Civil. lib. iii. p. 911.* Tollii, Amst. 1670. "He said, that what he now attempted to do was the last tyranny and despotism, that the same person should be both accuser and judge, and should arbitrarily dictate the degree of punishment." Dion. *Halicarn. lib. vii. p. 428.* Hudson.

¹ *Facinus est vinciri civem Romanum: scelus verberari.* In *Verrem*, lib. v. 170.

² *Cædebatur virgis in medio foro Messinæ civis Romanus, iudices; cum interea nullus gemitus, nulla vox alia istius miseri, inter dolorem crepitumque plagarum audiebatur, nisi hæc, Civis Romanus sum. Hac se commemoratione civitatis omnia verbera depulsum crudatumque a corpore dejecturum arbitrabatur.* Cicero in *Verrem*, lib. v. 162.

³ *O nomen dulce libertatis! O jus eximium nostræ civitatis! O lex Porcia legesque Sempronie! Huccine tandem omnia recederunt, ut civis Romanus in provincia populi Romani, delegatis in foro virgis cæderetur.* Ibid. 163.

⁴ Appian *Bell. Civil. lib. iii. p. 731.* Tollii.

⁵ *Nam si molestus pergis esse, jam intro abripiere, atque ibi*

Usque ad necem operiere loris. S. *loris liber.* *Adelphi*, act ii. scene 2, ver. 28.

⁶ *Act. xxii. 25.* The consul Marcellus scourged the rods one of the magistrates of that place who came to Rome, declaring he inflicted this as a public token that he was no Roman.

of the magistrates, They have beaten us openly uncondemned, being Romans, and have cast us into prison, and now do they thrust us out privately; no, verily, but let them come themselves and fetch us out. And the sergeants told these words to the magistrates, and they feared when they heard that they were Romans, and were conscious they had used them with a contumely and dishonour which subjected them to the just displeasure of the Roman senate.

“ Neither was it lawful for a Roman citizen to be bound¹, to be examined by the question, or to be the subject of any ingenious and cruel arts of tormenting to extort a confession from him. These punishments were deemed servile; torture was not exercised but upon slaves²; freemen were privileged from this inhumanity and ignominy. It is a flagrant enormity, says Cicero, for a Roman citizen to be bound³: not meaning by that, that it was unlawful for a Roman to be fettered and imprisoned; but it was in the highest degree unjustifiable and illegal for a freeman of Rome to be bound in order to be tortured for the discovery of his crimes. Dion Cassius, particularising the miseries of Claudius’s government, observes, that Messalina and Narcissus, and the rest of his freemen, seized the occasion that now offered to perpetrate the last enormities. Among other excesses they employed slaves and freedmen to be informers against their masters. They put to the torture several persons of the first distinction, not merely foreigners, but citizens; not only of the common people, but some even of the Roman knights and senators: though Claudius, when he first entered upon his government, had bound himself under a solemn oath that he would never apply the torture to any Roman citizen.⁴ These two passages from Cicero and Dion illustrate what St. Luke relates concerning Lysias the tribune. This officer, not knowing the dignity of his prisoner, had, in violation of this privilege of Roman citizens, given orders for the apostle to be bound and examined by scourging. (Acts xxii. 24, 25.) When he was afterwards informed by his centurion that St. Paul was a freeman of Rome, the sacred historian observes, that upon receiving this intelligence, the chief captain was afraid, after he knew that he was a Roman, and because he had bound him. (xxii. 29.)

III. “ We find that St. Paul, when he discovered that Festus his judge was disposed to gratify the Jews, appealed from a provincial court to the imperial tribunal; transferred his cause, by appeal, from the jurisdiction of the Roman procurator to the decision of the emperor. This appears to be another singular privilege which a freeman of Rome enjoyed. The sacred historian relates, that after Festus had stayed about ten days in the metropolis, he

¹ Facinus est vinciri civem Romanum. Cicero in Verr. lib. v. 170.

² Q. Gallium prætorem, servilem in modum torsit. Sueton. in vita Augusti, cap. 27. 192. variorum.

³ See the last note but one.

⁴ Dion Cassius, lib. 60. p. 958; Reimar.

went down to Cæsarea, and the next day after his arrival he summoned a court, ascended the bench, and ordered Paul to be brought before him. Here, as he stood at the bar, his prosecutors from Jerusalem with great virulence charged him with many heinous and atrocious crimes, none of which, upon strict examination, they were able to prove against him. For in his apology he publicly declared, in the most solemn terms, that they could not convict him of any one instance of a criminal behaviour, either to the law, the temple, or to the Roman emperor. Festus then, being (Acts xxv. 9.) desirous to ingratiate himself with the Jews, asked him if he was willing his cause should be tried at Jerusalem. To this proposal Paul replied, I am now before Cæsar's tribunal, where my cause ought to be impartially canvassed and decided. You yourself are conscious that I have been guilty of nothing criminal against my countrymen. If I have injured them, if I have perpetrated any capital crime, I submit without reluctance to capital punishment. But if all the charges they have now brought against me are proved to be absolutely false and groundless, no person can condemn me to death merely to gratify them. I appeal to the emperor. Festus, after deliberating with the Roman council, turned and said to him, Have you appealed to the emperor? You shall then go and be judged by the emperor. From the above-mentioned particulars, which are corroborated by several other similar incidents in the Roman history, it appears that a Roman citizen could by appeal remove his cause out of the provinces to Rome. 'It was,' says Mr. Melmoth, 'one of the privileges of a Roman citizen, secured by the Sempronian law, that he could not be capitally convicted but by the suffrage of the people, which seems to have been still so far in force as to make it necessary to send the person here mentioned to Rome.'¹ We are informed by Dionysius of Halicarnassus that the ever-memorable Poplicola enacted this law, that if any Roman governor shewed a disposition to condemn any one to death, to scourge him, or despoil him of his property, that any private person should have liberty to appeal from his jurisdiction to the judgment of the people, that in the mean time he should receive no personal harm from the magistracy till his cause was finally decided by the people.² This law, which was instituted at the first establishment of the commonwealth, continued in force under the emperors. If a freeman of Rome, in any of the provinces, deemed himself and his cause to be treated by the president with dishonour and injustice, he could by appeal remove it to Rome to the determination of the emperor. Suetonius informs us that Augustus delegated a number of consular persons at Rome to receive the appeals of people in the provinces, and that he appointed one person to superintend the

¹ Mr. Melmoth's note on the 97th letter in the 10th book of Pliny's Epistles, vol. ii. p. 672. 3d. edit.

² Dion. Halicarn. lib. v. p. 281. edit. Oxon. 1704. See also p. 334. ejusdem edit.

affairs of each province.¹ A passage in Pliny's epistle confirms this right and privilege which Roman freemen enjoyed of appealing from provincial courts to Rome, and, in consequence of such an appeal, being removed, as St. Paul was, to the capital, to take their trial in the supreme court of judicature. In that celebrated epistle to Trajan, who desired to be informed concerning the principles and conduct of the Christians, he thus writes: 'The method I have observed towards those who have been brought before me as Christians is this—I interrogated them whether they were Christians: if they confessed, I repeated the question twice again, adding threats at the same time, when, if they still persevered, I ordered them to be immediately punished; for I was persuaded, whatever the nature of their opinions might be, a contumacious and inflexible obstinacy certainly deserved correction. There were others also brought before me, possessed with the same infatuation, but, being citizens of Rome, I directed them to be carried thither.'²

IV. "The Roman method of fettering and confining criminals was singular. One end of a chain, that was of commodious length, was fixed about the right arm of the prisoner, and the other end was fastened to the left of a soldier. Thus a soldier was coupled to the prisoner, and every where attended and guarded him.³ This manner of confinement is frequently mentioned, and there are many beautiful allusions to it in the Roman writers. Thus was St. Paul confined. Fettered⁴ in this manner, he delivered his apology before Festus, king Agrippa, and Bernice. And it was this circumstance that occasioned one of the most pathetic and affecting strokes of true oratory that ever was displayed either in the Grecian or Roman senate. *Would to God that not only THOU, but also ALL that hear me this day, were both almost and altogether such as I am, except these bonds!* What a prodigious effect must this striking conclusion, and the sight of the irons held up⁵ to enforce it, make upon the minds of the audience! During the two years that St. Paul was a prisoner at large, and lived at Rome in his own hired house, he was subjected to this confinement. Paul was suffered to dwell with a soldier that kept him. The circumstance of publicly wearing this chain, and being thus coupled to a soldier, was very disgraceful and dishonourable, and the ignominy of it would naturally occasion the desertion of former friends and acquaintance. Hence the apostle immortalises

¹ Appellationes quotannis urbanorum quidem litigatorum prætori delegavit; ac provincialium consularibus viris, quos singulos cujusque provinciæ negotiis reposuisset. Sueton. vit. August. cap. 53. p. 208. edit. var. Lug. Bat. 1662.

² Plinii Epistolæ, lib. x. epist. 97. pp. 722, 723, ed. var. 1669.

³ Quemadmodum eadem catena et custodiam et militem copulat, sic ista quæ tam dissimilia sunt, pariter incedunt. Senecæ Epist. 5. tom. ii. p. 13. Gronovii, 1672. So also Manilius.

Vincitorum dominus, sociusque in parte catenæ,

Interdum pœnis innoxia corpora servat.

Lib. V. v. 628, 629.

⁴ In like manner the brave but unfortunate Eumenes addressed a very pathetic speech to his army, with his fetters on. Plutarch, Eumenes. Justin, lib. xiv. cap. 3.

⁵ Prolatam, sicut erat catenatus, manum ostendit. Justin, lib. xiv. cap. 3. p. 395. Gronovii.

the name of Onesiphorus, and fervently intercedes with God to bless his family, and to remember him in the day of future recompence for a rare instance of distinguished fidelity and affection to him when all had turned away from him and forsaken him. *The Lord give mercy to the house of Onesiphorus, for he oft refreshed me, and was not ASHAMED of my CHAIN, but immediately upon his arrival in Rome he sought me out very diligently till he found me! The Lord grant unto him that he may find mercy of the Lord in that day.* (2 Tim. i. 16, 17, 18.)

“ Sometimes the prisoner was fastened to two soldiers, one on each side, wearing a chain both on his right and left hand. St. Paul at first was thus confined. When the tribune received him from the hands of the Jews, he commanded him to be bound with two chains. (Acts xxi. 33.) In this manner was Peter fettered and confined by Herod Agrippa. “ The same night Peter was sleeping between two soldiers, bound with two chains.” (Acts xii. 6.)

“ It further appears, that if the soldiers, who were thus appointed to guard criminals, and to whom they were chained, suffered the prisoner to escape, they were punished with death. Thus, when Peter was delivered out of prison by a miracle, the next morning we read there was no small confusion among the soldiers who were appointed his guards, and to whom he had been chained, what was become of Peter.

“ Whence it appears that his deliverance had been effected, and his shackles had been miraculously unloosed, without their knowledge, when they were sunk in repose. Upon which Herod, after making a fruitless search for him, ordered all those who had been entrusted with the custody of Peter to be executed. (Acts xii. 19.) In like manner also keepers of prisons were punished with death, if the confined made their escape. This is evident from what is related concerning the imprisonment of Paul and Silas at Philippi. These, after their bodies were mangled with scourges, were precipitated into the public dungeon, and their feet were made fast in the stocks. At midnight these good men prayed and sang praises to God in these circumstances; when suddenly a dreadful earthquake shook the whole prison to its foundation, all the doors in an instant flew open, and the shackles of all the prisoners dropped to the ground. This violent concussion awakening the keeper, when he saw the doors of the prison wide open, he drew his sword, and was going to plunge it in his bosom, concluding that all the prisoners had escaped. In that crisis Paul called to him with a loud voice, entreating him not to lay violent hands upon himself, assuring him all the prisoners were safe.

V. “ The Roman tribunal, if we may judge of it from what is related concerning Pilate’s, was erected on a raised stage, the floor of which was embellished with a tessellated pavement. This consisted of little square pieces of marble, or of stones of various colours, which were disposed and arranged with great art and elegance, to

form a chequered and pleasing appearance.¹ Pliny informs us that this refinement was first introduced among the Romans by Sylla.² Their great men were so fond of this magnificence, and thought it so essential to the elegance and splendour of life, that they appear to have carried with them these splendid materials to form and compose these elaborate floors, for their tents, for their houses, and for their tribunals, wherever they removed³ — from a depraved and most wretchedly vitiated taste, at last deeming them a necessary and indispensable furniture, not merely a vain and proud display of grandeur and greatness. With this variegated pavement, composed of pieces of marble or stone thus disposed and combined, the evangelist informs us, that the floor of Pilate's tribunal was ornamented. (John xix. 13.) Such an embellishment of a tribunal was only a proud ostentatious display to the world of Italian greatness and magnificence, calculated less for real use than to strike the beholders with an idea of the boundless prodigality and extravagance of the Romans.

“ Having mentioned Pilate the Roman procurator, we cannot close this section without remarking the efforts he repeatedly made, when he sat in judgment upon Jesus, to save him from the determined fury of the Jews. Five successive attempts are enumerated by commentators and critics. He had the fullest conviction of his innocence—that it was merely through malice, and a virulence which nothing could placate, that they demanded his execution. Yet though the governor for a long time resisted all their united clamour and importunity, and, conscious that he had done nothing worthy of death, steadily refused to pronounce the sentence of condemnation upon him; yet one argument, which in a menacing manner they addressed to him, at last totally shook his firmness, and induced him to yield to their sanguinary purpose. The Jews, after aggravating his guilt, and employing every expedient in vain to influence the president to inflict capital punishment upon him, at last cried out: *If thou let this man go, thou art not Cæsar's friend; whosoever maketh himself a king, speaketh against Cæsar. Then delivered he him, therefore, to them to be crucified.* Upon hearing this, all his former firmness instantly vanished; he could stem the torrent of popular fury no longer; to this he yielded, and immediately ordered his execution. This conduct of Pilate arose from his perfect knowledge of the character and temper of his master Tiberius, who was a gloomy old tyrant, day and night incessantly haunted with the fiends of jealousy and suspicion—who would never forgive any innovations in his government, but punished the authors and abettors of them with inexorable death.⁴

¹ Opus tessellatum ex parvuli coloris varii lapillis quadratis constabat, quibus solum pavimenti incrustabatur. Varro de re rustica, lib. iii. 1.

² Lithostrota acceptavere sub Sylla. Plinii Hist. Nat. lib. xxxvi. p. 60.

³ In expeditionibus tessella at sectilia pavimenta circumtulisse. Suetonius vita J. Cæsaris. cap. 46. p. 74. edit. variorum Lug. Bat. 1662. Vid. etiam not. Salmasii in loc.

⁴ See Suetonius, Tacitus, Dion Cassius.

Pilate, therefore, hearing the Jews reiterating this with menaces, that if he let him go he was not Cæsar's friend—knowing the jealousy and cruelty of Tiberius¹, and fearing that the disappointed rage of the Jews would instigate them to accuse him to the old tyrant, as abetting and suffering a person to escape with impunity, who had assumed the regal title and character in one of his provinces, was alarmed for his own safety; and rather than draw down upon his devoted head the resentment of the sovereign, who would never forgive or forget an injury, real or imaginary, contrary to his own judgment and clear persuasion of the innocence of Jesus, sentenced him to be crucified?"

VI. Though not strictly a Roman tribunal, yet as its sittings were permitted by the Roman government, the senate and court of *Areopagus*, at Athens, claims a concise notice in this place. This tribunal is *said* to have been instituted at Athens, by Cecrops the founder of that city, and was celebrated for the strict equity of its decisions. Among the various causes of which it took cognizance, were matters of religion, the consecration of new gods, erection of temples and altars, and the introduction of new ceremonies into divine worship. On this account St. Paul was brought before the tribunal of Areopagus as a *setter forth of strange gods, because he preached* unto the Athenians, Jesus and *Αναστασις*, or the *Resurrection*. (Acts xvii. 18.) Its sittings were held on the *Αρειος Παγος* or *Hill of Mars* (whence its name was derived), which is situated in the midst of the city of Athens, opposite to the Acropolis or citadel, and is an insulated precipitous rock, broken towards the south, and on the north side sloping gently down to the temple of Theseus. Its appearance is thus described by Dr. E. D. Clarke:—"It is not possible to conceive a situation of greater peril, or one more calculated to prove the sincerity of a preacher, than that in which the apostle was here placed: and the truth of this, perhaps, will never be better felt than by a spectator, who from this eminence actually beholds the monuments of pagan pomp and superstition, by which he, whom the Athenians considered as the *setter forth of strange gods*, was then surrounded: representing to the imagination the disciples of Socrates and of Plato, the dogmatist of the porch, and the sceptic of the academy, addressed by a poor and lowly man, who, *rude in speech*, without the *enticing words of man's wisdom*, enjoined precepts contrary to their taste, and very hostile to their prejudices. One of the peculiar privileges of the Areopagitæ seems to have been set at defiance by the zeal of Saint Paul on this occasion; namely, that of inflicting extreme and exemplary punishment upon any person, who should slight the celebration of the holy mysteries, or blaspheme the gods of Greece. We ascended to the summit by means of steps cut in the natural stone. The sublime scene here exhibited, is so striking, that a brief description of it may prove how truly it offers to us a

¹ Philo makes the very same remark concerning Pilate, p. 390. edit. Mangey.

commentary upon the apostle's words, as they were delivered upon the spot. He stood upon the top of the rock, and beneath the canopy of heaven. Before him there was spread a glorious prospect of mountains, islands, seas, and skies: behind him towered the lofty Acropolis, crowned with all its marble temples. Thus every object, whether in the face of nature, or among the works of art, conspired to elevate the mind, and to fill it with reverence towards that BEING, who made and governs the world (Acts xvii. 24. 28.); who sitteth in that light which no mortal eye can approach, and yet is nigh unto the meanest of his creatures; *in whom we live and move and have our being.*"¹

SECTION III.²

ON THE CRIMINAL LAW OF THE JEWS.

- I. CRIMES AGAINST GOD:—1. *Idolatry*.—2. *Blasphemy*.—3. *Falsely Prophesying*.—4. *Divination*.—5. *Perjury*.—II. CRIMES AGAINST PARENTS AND RULERS.—III. CRIMES AGAINST PROPERTY:—1. *Theft*.—2. *Man-stealing*.—3. *The Crime of denying any thing taken in trust, or found*.—4. *Regulations concerning Debtors*.—IV. CRIMES AGAINST THE PERSON:—1. *Murder*.—2. *Homicide*.—3. *Corporal Injuries*.—4. *Crimes of Lust*.—V. CRIMES OF MALICE.

I. IT has been shewn in a preceding chapter³, that the maintenance of the worship of the only true God was a fundamental object of the Mosaic polity. The government of the Israelites being a *Theocracy*, that is, one in which the supreme legislative power was vested in the Almighty, who was regarded as their king, it was to be expected that, in a state confessedly religious, crimes against the Supreme Majesty of Jehovah should occupy a primary place in the statutes given by Moses to that people. Accordingly,

1. *Idolatry*, that is, the worship of other gods, in the Mosaic law occupies the first place in the list of crimes. It was indeed, a crime not merely against God, but also against a fundamental law of the state, and consequently was a species of *high treason*, which was capitally punished. This crime consisted not in ideas and opinions, but in the overt act of worshipping other gods. An Israelite therefore was guilty of idolatry:—

(1.) When he actually worshipped other gods besides JEHOVAH, the only true God. This was, properly speaking, the state crime just noticed; and it is, at the same time, the greatest of all offences

¹ Dr. Clarke's *Travels*, vol. vi. pp. 263—265. See also Mr. Dodwell's *Classical and Topographical Tour through Greece*, vol. i. pp. 361, 362.

² This section is wholly an abridgment of Michaelis's *Commentaries*, vol. iv. pp. 1—312.

³ See pp. 76—78. *supra*.

against sound reason and common sense. This crime was prohibited in the first of the ten commandments. (Exod. xx. 3.)

(2.) *By worshipping images*, whether of the true God under a visible form, to which the Israelites were but too prone (Exod. xxxii. 4, 5. Judg. xvii. 3. -xviii. 4—6. 14—17. 30. 31. vi. 25—33. viii. 24—27. 1 Kings xii. 26—31.), or of the images of the gods of the Gentiles, of which we have so many instances in the sacred history. All *image-worship* whatever is expressly forbidden in Exod. xx. 4, 5.; and a curse is denounced against it in Deut. xxvii. 15.

(3.) *By prostration before, or adoration of, such images*, or of any thing else revered as a god, such as the sun, moon, and stars. (Exod. xx. 5. xxxiv. 14. Deut. iv. 19.) This prostration consisted in falling down on the knees, and at the same time touching the ground with the forehead.

(4.) *By having altars or groves dedicated to idols, or images thereof*; all which the Mosaic law required to be utterly destroyed (Exod. xxxiv. 13. Deut. vii. 5. xii. 3.); and the Israelites were prohibited, by Deut. vii. 25, 26., from keeping, or even bringing into their houses, the gold and silver that had been upon any image, lest it should prove a snare, and lead them astray: because, having been once consecrated to an idol-god, (considering the then prevalent superstition as to the reality of such deities,) some idea of its sanctity, or some dread of it, might still have continued, and have thus been the means of propagating idolatry afresh among their children.

(5.) *By offering sacrifices to idols*, which was expressly forbidden in Levit. xvii. 1—7., especially human victims, the sacrifices of which (it is well known) prevailed to a frightful extent. Parents immolated their offspring: this horrid practice was introduced among the Israelites, from the Canaanites, and is repeatedly rebuked by the prophets in the most pointed manner. The offering of human victims was prohibited in Levit. xviii. 2, compared with 2, 3. 24—30. xx. 1—5. Deut. xii. 30. and xviii. 10.

(6.) *By eating of offerings made to idols, made by other people*, who invited them to their offering-feasts. Though no special law was enacted against thus attending the festivals of their gods, it is evidently presupposed as unlawful in Exod. xxxiv. 15.

Idolatry was punished by stoning the guilty individual. When a whole city became guilty of idolatry, it was considered in a state of rebellion against the government, and was treated according to the laws of war. Its inhabitants, and all their cattle were put to death; no spoil was made, but every thing which it contained was burnt, together with the city itself; nor was it ever allowed to be rebuilt. (Deut. xiii. 13—18.) This law does not appear to have been particularly enforced; the Israelites, (from their proneness to adopt the then almost universally prevalent polytheism) in most cases overlooked the crime of a city that became notoriously idolatrous; whence it happened, that idolatry was not confined to

any one city, but soon overspread the whole nation. In this case, when the people, as a people, brought guilt upon themselves by their idolatry, God reserved to himself the infliction of the punishments denounced against that national crime; which consisted in wars, famines, and other national judgments, and (when the measure of their iniquity was completed) in the destruction of their polity, and the transportation of the people as slaves into other lands. (Deut. xxviii. xxix. xxxii.) For the crime of seducing others to the worship of strange gods, but more especially where a pretended prophet (who might often naturally anticipate what would come to pass) uttered predictions tending to lead the people into idolatry, the appointed punishment was stoning to death. (Deut. xiii. 2—12.) In order to prevent the barbarous immolation of infants, Moses denounced the punishment of stoning upon those who offered human sacrifices; which the bye-standers might instantly execute upon the delinquent when caught in the act, without any judicial inquiry whatever. (Levit. xx. 2.)

2. God being both the sovereign and the legislator of the Israelites, *Blasphemy* (that is, the speaking injuriously of his name, his attributes, his government, and his revelation) was not only a crime against Him, but also against the state; it was therefore punished capitally by stoning. (Levit. xxiv. 10—14.)

3. It appears from Deut. xviii. 20—22, that a *False Prophet* was punished capitally, being stoned to death; and there were two cases in which a person was held as convicted of the crime, and consequently liable to its punishment, viz. (1.) If he had prophesied any thing in the name of any other god, — whether it took place, or not, — he was at all events considered as a false prophet, and, as such, stoned to death. (Deut. xiii. 2—6.) — (2.) If a prophet spoke in the name of the true God, he was tolerated, so long as he remained unconvicted of imposture, even though he threatened calamity or destruction to the state, and he could not be punished; but when the event which he had predicted did not come to pass, he was regarded as an audacious impostor, and, as such, was stoned. (Deut. xviii. 21, 22.)

4. *Divination* is the conjecturing of future events from things which are supposed to presage them. The eastern people were always fond of divination, magic, the curious arts of interpreting dreams, and of obtaining a knowledge of future events. When Moses gave the law which bears his name to the Israelites, this disposition had long been common in Egypt and the neighbouring countries. Now, all these vain arts in order to pry into futurity, and all divination whatever, unless God was consulted by prophets, or by *Urim* and *Thummim* (the sacred lot kept by the high priest), were expressly prohibited by the statutes of Lev. xix. 26. 31. xx. 6. 28. 27. and Deut. xviii. 9—12. In the case of a person transgressing these laws, by consulting a diviner, God reserved to himself the infliction of his punishment; the transgressor not

being amenable to the secular magistrate. (Lev. xx. 6.) The diviner himself was to be stoned. (Lev. xx. 27.)

5. *Perjury* is, by the Mosatic law, most peremptorily prohibited as a most heinous sin against God; to whom the punishment of it is left, and who in Exod. xx. 7. expressly promises that he will inflict it, without ordaining the infliction of any punishment by the temporal magistrate; except only in the case of a man falsely charging another with a crime, in which case the false witness was liable to the same punishment which would have been inflicted on the accused party if he had been found to have been really guilty (as is shewn in p. 136. *infra*); not indeed as the punishment of perjury against God, but of false witness.

II. CRIMES AGAINST PARENTS and MAGISTRATES constitute an important article of the criminal law of the Hebrews:

1. In the form of government among that people, we recognise much of the patriarchal spirit; in consequence of which fathers enjoyed great rights over their families. The cursing of parents,—that is, not only the imprecation of evil on them, but probably also all rude and reproachful language towards them, was punished with death (Exod. xxi. 17. Levit. xx. 9.); as likewise was the striking of them. (Exod. xxi. 15.) An example of the crime of cursing of a parent, which is fully in point, is given by Jesus Christ in Matt. xv. 4—6. or Mark vii. 9—12.; “where he upbraids the Pharisees with their giving, from their deference to human traditions and doctrines, such an exposition of the divine law, as converted an action, which, by the law of Moses, would have been punished with death, into a vow, both obligatory and acceptable in the sight of God. It seems, that it was then not uncommon for an undutiful and degenerate son, who wanted to be rid of the burden of supporting his parents, and in his wrath, to turn them adrift upon the wide world, to say to his father or mother *Korban*, or, *Be that Korban* (consecrated) *which should appropriate to thy support*; that is, *Every thing where might ever aid or serve thee*, and, of course, *every thing, which I do devote to thy relief in the days of helpless old age, I here vow, God*.—A most abominable vow indeed! and which God would questionably, as little approve or accept, as he would a vow to commit adultery. And yet some of the Pharisees pronounced on such vows this strange decision; that they were absolutely obligatory, and that the son, who uttered such words, was bound to abstain from contributing, in the smallest article, to the use of his parents, because every thing, that should have been so appropriated, had become consecrated to God, and could no longer be applied to their use, without sacrilege and a breach of his vow. But on this exposition, Christ not only remarked, that it abrogated the fifth commandment, but he likewise added, as a counter-doctrine, that Moses, their own legislator, had expressly declared, that the man who cursed father or mother deserved death. Now, it is impossible for a man to curse his parents more effectually, than by a vow like

this, when he interprets it with such rigour, to preclude him from doing any thing in future for their benefit. It is not imprecating upon them a curse in the common style of curses, which evaporate into air; but it is fulfilling the curse, and making it to all intents and purposes effectual.¹

Of the two crimes above noticed, the act of striking a parent evinces the most depraved and wicked disposition: and severe as the punishment was, few parents would apply to a magistrate, until all methods had been tried in vain. Both these crimes are included in the case of the stubborn, rebellious, and drunkard son; whom his parents were unable to keep in order, and who, when intoxicated, endangered the lives of others. Such an irreclaimable offender was to be punished with stoning. (Deut. xxi. 18—21.) Severe as this law may *seem*, we have no instance recorded of its being carried into effect; but it must have had a most salutary operation in the prevention of crimes, in a climate like that of Palestine, where (as in all southern climates) liquor produces more formidable effects than with us, and where also it is most probable that at that time, the people had not the same efficacious means which we possess, of securing drunkards, and preventing them from doing mischief.

2. Civil government being an ordinance of God, provision is made in all well regulated states for respecting the persons of magistrates. We have seen in a former chapter², that when the regal government was established among the Israelites, the person of the king was inviolable, even though he might be tyrannical and unjust. It is indispensably necessary to the due execution of justice that the persons of magistrates be sacred, and that they should not be insulted in the discharge of their office. All reproachful words or curses, uttered against persons invested with authority, are prohibited in Exod. xxii. 28. No punishment, however, is specified; only it was left to the discretion of the judge, and was different according to the rank of the magistrate and the extent of the crime.

III. The CRIMES or OFFENCES AGAINST PROPERTY, mentioned by Moses, are theft, man-stealing, and the denial of any thing taken in trust, or found.

1. On the crime of *Theft*, Moses imposed the punishment of double (and in certain cases still higher) restitution; and if the thief were unable to make it (which however could rarely happen, as every Israelite by law had his paternal field, the crops of which might be attached), he was ordered to be sold for a slave, and payment was to be made to the injured party out of the purchase money. (Exod. xxii. 1. 3.) The same practice obtains, according to Chardin, among the Persians. The wisdom of this regulation is much greater than the generality of mankind are aware of: for, as the desire of gain and the love of luxuries are the prevalent induce-

¹ Michaelis's Commentaries, vol. iv. p. 300.

² See p. 85. *supra*.

ments to theft, restitution, varied according to circumstances, would effectually prevent the unlawful gratification of that desire, while the idle man would be deterred from stealing by the dread of slavery, in which he would be compelled to work by the power of blows. If, however, a thief was found breaking into a house in the night season, he might be killed (Exod. xxii. 2.), but not if the sun had arisen, in which case he might be known and apprehended, and the restitution made which was enjoined by Moses. When stolen oxen or sheep were found in the possession of a thief, he was to make a *two-fold* restitution to the owner, who thus obtained a profit for his risk of loss. (Exod. xxii. 4.) This punishment was applicable to every case in which the article stolen remained unaltered in his possession. But if it was already alienated or slaughtered, the criminal was to restore *four-fold* for a *sheep*, and *five-fold* for an *ox* (Exod. xxii. 1.), in consequence of its great value and indispensable utility in agriculture, to the Israelites, who had no horses. In the time of Solomon, when property had become more valuable from the increase of commerce, the punishment of restitution was increased to *seven-fold*. (Prov. vi. 30. 31.) When a thief had nothing to pay, he was sold as a slave (Exod. xxii. 3.), probably for as many years as were necessary for the extinction of the debt, and of course, perhaps for life; though in other cases the Hebrew servant could be made to serve only for six years. If, however, a thief,—after having denied, even upon oath, any theft with which he was charged,—had the honesty or conscience to retract his perjury, and to confess his guilt, instead of double restitution, he had only to repay the amount stolen, and *one-fifth* more. (Levit. vi. 2. 5.)

2. *Man-stealing*, that is, the seizing or stealing of the person of a free-born Israelite, either to use him as a slave himself, or to sell him as a slave to others, was absolutely and irremissibly punished with death. (Exod. xxi. 16. Deut. xxiv. 7.)

3. “Where a person was judicially convicted of having *denied any thing committed to his trust*, or found by him, his punishment, as in the case of theft, was double restitution; only that it never, as in that crime, went so far as quadruple, or quintuple restitution; at least nothing of this kind is ordained in Exod. xxii. 8. If the person accused of this crime had sworn himself guiltless, and afterwards, from the impulse of his conscience, acknowledged the commission of perjury, he had only *one-fifth* beyond the value of the article denied to refund to its owner.” (Levit. vi. 5.)

4. The Mosaic laws respecting *Debtors* were widely different from those which obtain in European countries: the mode of procedure sanctioned by them, though simple, was very efficient. Persons, who had property due to them, might, if they chose, secure it either by means of a mortgage, or by a pledge, or by a bondsman or surety.

(1.) The creditor, when about to receive a pledge for a debt, was not allowed to enter the debtor's house, and take what he pleased; but was to wait before the door, till the debtor should

deliver up that pledge with which he could most easily dispense. (Deut. xxiv. 10, 11. Compare Job xxii. 6. xxiv. 3. 7—9.)

(2.) When a mill or mill-stone, or an upper garment, was given as a pledge, it was not to be kept all night. These articles appear to be specified as examples for all other things with which the debtor could not dispense without great inconvenience. (Exod. xxii. 26, 27. Deut. xxiv. 6. 12.)

(3.) The debt which remained unpaid until the seventh or sabbatic year (during which the soil was to be left without cultivation, and consequently, a person was not supposed to be in a condition to make payments,) could not be exacted during that period. (Deut. xv. 1—11.) But, at other times, in case the debt was not paid, the creditor might seize, first, the *hereditary land* of the debtor, and enjoy its produce until the debt was paid, or at least until the year of jubilee; or secondly, his *houses*. These might be sold in perpetuity, except those belonging to the Levites. (Levit. xxv. 14—32.) Thirdly, in case the house or land was not sufficient to cancel the debt, or if it so happened that the debtor had none, the *person* of the debtor might be sold, together with his wife and children, if he had any. This is implied in Lev. xxv. 39.; and this custom is alluded to in Job xxiv. 9. It existed in the time of Elisha (2 Kings iv. 1.); and on the return of the Jews from the Babylonish captivity, some rich persons exercised this right over their poor debtors. (Nehem. v. 1—13.) Our Lord alludes to the same custom in Matt. xviii. 25. As the person of the debtor might thus be seized and sold, his *cattle* and *furniture* were consequently liable for his debts. This is alluded to by Solomon, in Prov. xxii. 27. It does not appear that imprisonment for debt existed in the age of Moses, but it seems to have prevailed in the time of Jesus Christ. (Matt. xviii. 34.)

(4.) If a person had become bondsman, or surety for another, he was liable to be called upon for payment in the same way with the original debtor. But this practice does not appear to have obtained before the time of Solomon, (in whose Proverbs there are several references to it,) when it was attended with serious consequences. It seems that the formality observed was, for the person who became surety to *give his hand to the debtor*, and not to the creditor, to intimate that he became, in a legal sense, one with the debtor; for Solomon cautions his son against giving his hand to a *stranger*, to a person whose circumstances he did not know: and entreats him to go and urge the person to whom he had given his hand, or for whom he had become surety, to pay his own debt: so that it must have been to the debtor that the hand was given. See Prov. xi. 15. xvii. 18. and xxii. 26.

IV. Among the CRIMES which may be committed AGAINST THE PERSON,

1. *Murder* claims the first place. As this is a crime of the most heinous nature, Moses has described four accessory circumstances

or marks, by which to distinguish it from simple homicide or manslaughter, viz. (1.) When it proceeds from *hatred* or enmity. (Numb. xxxv. 20, 21. Deut. xix. 11.) — (2.) When it proceeds from *thirst* of blood, or a desire to satiate revenge with the blood of another. (Numb. xxxv. 20.) — (3.) When it is committed *premeditatedly and deceitfully*. (Exod. xxi. 14.) — (4.) When a man lies in wait for another, falls upon him, and slays him. (Deut. xix. 11.) — The punishment of murder was death without all power of redemption.

2. *Homicide* or *Manslaughter* is discriminated by the following adjuncts or circumstances:— (1.) That it takes place *without* hatred or enmity. (Numb. xxxv. 22. Deut. xix. 4—6.) — (2.) *Without* thirst for revenge. (Exod. xxi. 13. Numb. xxxv. 22.) — (3.) When it happens by mistake. (Numb. xxxv. 11. 15.) — (4.) By *accident*, or (as it is termed in the English law) *chance-medley*. (Deut. xix. 5.) In order to constitute wilful murder, besides enmity, Moses deemed it essential, that the deed be perpetrated by a blow, a thrust, or a cast, or other thing of such a nature as inevitably to cause death (Numb. xxxv. 16—21.): such as, the use of an iron tool, — a stone, or piece of wood, that may probably cause death, — the striking of a man with the fist, out of enmity, — pushing a man down in such a manner that his life is endangered, — and throwing any thing at a man, from sanguinary motives, so as to occasion his death. The punishment of homicide was confinement to a city of refuge, as will be shewn in the following section.

Besides the two crimes of murder and homicide, there are two other species of homicide, to which no punishment was annexed, viz. — (1.) If a man caught a thief breaking into his house by night, and killed him, *it was not blood-guiltiness*, that is, he could not be punished; but if he did so when the sun was up, it was *blood-guiltiness*; for the thief's life ought to have been spared, for the reason annexed to the law (Exod. xxii. 2, 3.), viz. because then the person robbed might have it in his power to obtain restitution; or, at any rate, the thief, if he could not otherwise make up his loss, might be sold, in order to repay him. — (2.) If the *Goël* or avenger of blood overtook the innocent homicide before he reached a city of refuge, and killed him while his *heart was hot*, it was considered as done in justifiable zeal (Deut. xix. 6.); and even if he found him without the limits of his asylum, and slew him, he was not punishable. (Numb. xxxv. 26, 27.) The taking of pecuniary compensation for murder was prohibited; but the *mode* of punishing murderers was undetermined; and indeed it appears to have been left in a great degree to the pleasure of the *Goël*. An exception, however, was made to the severity of the law in the case of a perfect slave (that is, one not of Hebrew descent) whether male or female. Although a man had struck any of his slaves, whether male or female, with a stick, so as to cause their death, unless that event took place immediately, and under his hand, he was not punished. If the slave survived one or two days, the master escaped with impunity: it

being considered that his death might not have proceeded from the beating, and that it was not a master's interest to kill his slaves, because, as Moses says (Exod. xxi. 20, 21.), *they are his money*. If the slave died under his master's hand while beating him, or even during the same day, his death was to be avenged; but, in what manner Moses has not specified. Probably the Israelitish master was subjected only to an arbitrary punishment, regulated according to circumstances by the pleasure of the judge.

In order to increase an abhorrence of murder, and to deter them from the perpetration of so heinous a crime, — when it had been committed by some person unknown, the city nearest to which the corpse was found was to be ascertained by mensuration: after which the elders or magistrates of that city were required to declare their utter ignorance of the affair in the very solemn manner prescribed in Deut. xxi. 1—9.

3. For other *Corporal Injuries*, of various kinds, different statutes were made, which shew the humanity and wisdom of the Mosaic law. Thus, if a man injured another in a *fray*, he was obliged to pay the expenses of his cure, and of his bed, that is, the loss of his time arising from his confinement. (Exod. xxi. 18, 19.) By this admirable precept, most courts of justice still regulate their decisions in such cases. — If a pregnant woman was hurt, in consequence of a fray between two individuals, — as posterity among the Jews was among the peculiar promises of their covenant, — in the event of her premature delivery, the author of the misfortune was obliged to give her husband such a pecuniary compensation as he might demand, the amount of which, if the offender thought it too high, was to be determined by the decision of arbiters. On the other hand, if either the woman or her child was hurt or maimed, the law of retaliation took its full effect, as stated in Exod. xxi. 22—25. — The law of retaliation also operated, if one man hurt another by either assaulting him openly, or by any insidious attack, whether the parties were both Israelites, or an Israelite and a foreigner. (Levit. xxiv. 19—22.) This equality of the law, however, did not extend to slaves: but if a master knocked out the eye or tooth of a slave, the latter received his freedom as a compensation for the injury he had sustained. (Exod. xxi. 26, 27.) If this noble law did not teach the unmerciful slave-holder *humanity*, at least it taught him caution; as one rash blow might have deprived him of all right to the future services of his slave, and consequently self-interest would oblige him to be cautious and circumspect.

4. The crime, of which decency withholds the name, as nature abominates the idea, was punished with death (Levit. xviii. 22, 23. xx. 13. 15, 16.), as also was adultery¹ (Levit. xx. 10.), — it should

¹ As the Jewish law inflicted such heavy punishments on those who committed fornication and adultery, it is probable from Prov. ii. 16., that the Jews had harlots among them from the neighbouring nations, who seduced them into impurity and idolatry, and

seem by stoning (Ezek. xvi. 38. 40. John viii. 7.), except in certain cases which are specified in Levit. xix. 20—22. Other crimes of lust, which were common among the Egyptians and Canaanites, are made capital by Moses. For a full examination of the wisdom of his laws on these subjects, the reader is referred to the Commentaries of Michaelis.¹

V. In nothing, however, were the wisdom and equity of the Mosaic law more admirably displayed, than in the rigour with which CRIMES OF MALICE were punished. Those pests of society, malicious informers, were odious in the eye of that law (Levit. xix. 16—18.); and the publication of false reports, affecting the characters of others, is expressly prohibited in Exod. xxiii. 1.: though that statute does not annex any punishment to this crime. One exception, however, is made, which justly imposes a very severe punishment on the delinquent. See Deut. xxii. 13—19. All manner of false witness was prohibited (Exod. xx. 16.), even though it were to favour a poor man. (Exod. xxiii. 1—3.) But in the case of false testimony against an innocent man, the matter was ordered to be investigated with the utmost strictness, and, as a species of wickedness altogether extraordinary, to be brought before the highest tribunal, where the priests and the judges of the whole people sat in judgment: and, after conviction, the false witness was subjected to punishment, according to the law of retaliation, and beyond the possibility of reprieve: so that he suffered the very same punishment which attended the crime of which he accused his innocent brother. (Deut. xix. 16—21.) No regulation can be more equitable than this, which must have operated as a powerful prevention of this crime. Some of those excellent laws, which are the glory and ornament of the British Constitution, have been made on this very ground. Thus, in the 37 Edw. III. c. 18. it is enacted that all those who make suggestion, shall suffer the same penalty to which the other party would have been subject, if he were attainted, in case his suggestions be found evil. A similar law was made in the same reign. (38 Edw. III. c. 9.) By a law of the twelve tables, false witnesses were thrown down the Tarpeian rock. In short, false witnesses have been deservedly execrated by all nations, and in every age.

who might be tolerated in some corrupt periods of their state. The case was the same at Athens, where foreign harlots were tolerated. Hence the term *strange women*, came to be applied to all bad women, whether foreigners or Israelites. Orton's Exposition, vol. v. p. 6.

¹ Vol. iv. pp. 163—203.

SECTION IV.

ON THE PUNISHMENTS MENTIONED IN THE SCRIPTURES.

Design of Punishments. — Classification of Jewish Punishments. —

I. PUNISHMENTS, NOT CAPITAL. — 1. *Scourging.* — 2. *Retaliation.* — 3. *Pecuniary Fines.* — 4. *Offerings in the nature of punishment.* — 5. *Imprisonment.* — *Oriental mode of treating prisoners.* — 6. *Depriving them of sight.* — 7. *Cutting or plucking off the hair.* — 8. *Excommunication.* — II. CAPITAL PUNISHMENTS. — 1. *Slaying with the sword.* — 2. *Stoning.* — 3. *Burning to death.* — 4. *Decapitation.* — 5. *Pre-cipitation.* — 6. *Drowning.* — 7. *Bruising in a mortar.* — 8. *Dichotomy, or cutting asunder.* — 9. *Τυμπανισμος, or beating to death.* — 10. *Exposing to wild beasts.* — 11. *Crucifixion.* — (1.) *Prevalence of this mode of punishment among the antients.* — (2.) *Ignominy of Crucifixion.* — (3.) *The circumstances of our Saviour's Crucifixion considered and illustrated.*

THE end of punishment is expressed by Moses, to be the deterrent of others from the commission of crimes. His language is, that *others may hear and fear, and may shun the commission of like crimes.* (Deut. xvii. 13. xix. 20.) By the wise and humane enactments of this legislator, the parents are not to be put to death for their children, nor children for their parents (Deut. xxiv. 16.), as was afterwards the case with the Chaldæans (Dan. vi. 24.), and also among the kings of Israel (1 Kings xxi. and 2 Kings ix. 26.), on charges of treason. Of the punishments mentioned in the sacred writers, some were inflicted by the Jews in common with other nations, and others were peculiar to themselves. They are usually divided into two classes, *non-capital* and *capital*.

I. THE NON-CAPITAL or inferior PUNISHMENTS, which were inflicted for smaller offences, are eight in number, viz. •

1. The most common corporal punishment of the antient Mosaic law was *Scourging.* (Lev. xix. 20. Deut. xxii. 18. xxv. 2, 3.) After the captivity it continued to be the usual punishment for transgressions of the law, so late indeed as the time of Josephus¹; and the apostle tells us that he suffered it *five times.*² (2 Cor. xi. 24.) In the time of our Saviour it was not confined to the judicial tribunals, but was also inflicted in the synagogues. (Matt. x. 17. xxiii. 34. Acts xxii. 19. xxvi. 11.) The penalty of scourging was inflicted by judicial sentence. The offender having been admonished to acknow-

¹ Ant. Jud. lib. iv. c. 8. § 11.

² Inflicting the punishment of whipping, the Jews sometimes, for notorious offences, tied sharp bones, pieces of lead, or thorns to the end of the thongs, called by the Greeks *αστραγαλως μαστιγας*, *flagra taxillata*; but in the Scriptures termed *scorpions.* To these Rehoboam alludes in 1 Kings xii. 11. — Burder's Oriental Literature, vol. i. p. 414.

ledge his guilt, and the witnesses produced against him, in capital cases, the judges commanded him to be tied by the arms to a low pillar: the culprit being stripped down to his waist, the executioner, who stood behind him upon a stone, inflicted the punishment both on the back and breast with thongs ordinarily made of ox's hide or leather. The number of stripes depended upon the enormity of the offence. According to the talmudical writers¹, while the executioner was discharging his office, the principal judge proclaimed these words with a loud voice:—*If thou observest not all the words of this law, &c. then the Lord shall make thy plagues wonderful, &c.* (Deut. xxviii. 58, 59.); adding, *Keep therefore the words of this covenant, and do them, that ye may prosper in all that ye do.* (Deut. xxix. 9.); and concluding with these words of the Psalmist (lxxviii. 88.):—*But he being full of compassion forgave their iniquities: which he was to repeat, if he had finished these verses before the full number of stripes was given. It was expressly enacted that no Jew should suffer more than forty stripes for any crime, though a less number might be inflicted. In order that the legal number might not be exceeded, the scourge consisted of three lashes or thongs: so that, at each blow, he received three stripes: consequently when the full punishment was inflicted, the delinquent received only thirteen blows, that is, forty stripes save one; but if he were so weak, as to be on the point of fainting away, the judges would order the executioner to suspend his flagellation. Among the Romans, however, the number was not limited, but varied according to the crime of the malefactor and the discretion of the judge. It is highly probable that, when Pilate took Jesus and scourged him, he directed this scourging to be unusually severe, that the sight of his lacerated body might move the Jews to compassionate the prisoner, and desist from opposing his release. This appears the more probable; as our Saviour was so enfeebled by this scourging, that he afterwards had not strength enough left to enable him to drag his cross to Calvary. Among the Jews, the punishment of scourging involved no sort of ignominy, which could make the sufferer infamous or an object of reproach to his fellow citizens. It consisted merely in the physical sense of the pain.*

2. *Retaliation*, or the returning of like for like, was the punishment inflicted for corporal injuries to another;—*eye for eye, tooth for tooth, hand for hand, foot for foot.* (Exod. xxi. 24.) It appears, however, to have been rarely, if ever, strictly put in execution: but the injurious party was to give the injured person satisfaction. In this sense the *ταυτοπαθεια* among the Greeks, and the *Lex Talionis* among the Romans was understood; and an equivalent was accepted, the value of an eye, a tooth, &c. for the eye or tooth itself. It should seem that in the time of Jesus Christ, the Jews had made this law (the execution of which belonged to the civil magistrate) a ground for authorising private resentments, and all the excesses

committed by a vindictive spirit. Revenge was carried to the utmost extremity, and more evil returned than what had been received. On this account, our Saviour prohibited retaliation in his divine sermon on the mount. (Matt. v. 38, 39.)

3. *Restitution*.—Justice requires that those things which have been stolen or unlawfully taken from another should be restored to the party aggrieved, and that compensation should be made to him by the aggressor. Accordingly, various fines or pecuniary payments were enacted by the Mosaic law; as,

(1.) *FINES*, מַנְיָ (ONESH), strictly so called, went commonly to the injured party; and were of two kinds,—*Fixed*, that is, those of which the amount was determined by some statute, as for instance, Deut. xxii. 19. or xxii. 29.;—and *Undetermined*, where the amount was left to the decision of the judges. (Exod. xxi. 22.)

(2.) Two-fold, four-fold, and even five fold, *restitution* of things stolen, and restitution of property unjustly retained, with twenty per cent. over and above. Thus, if a man killed a beast, he was to make it good, beast for beast. (Levit. xxiv. 18.)—If an ox pushed or gored another man's servant to death, his owner was bound to pay for the servant thirty shekels of silver. (Exod. xxi. 32.)—In the case of one man's ox pushing the ox of another man to death, as it would be very difficult to ascertain which of the two had been to blame for the quarrel, the two owners were obliged to bear the loss. The living ox was to be sold, and its price, together with the dead beast, was to be equally divided between them. If, however, one of the oxen had previously been notorious for pushing, and the owner had not taken care to confine him, in such case he was to give the loser another, and to take the dead ox himself. (Exod. xxi. 36.)—If a man dug a pit and did not cover it, or let an old pit remain open, and another man's beast fell into it, the owner of such pit was obliged to pay for the beast, and had it for the payment. (Exod. xxi. 33, 34.)—When a fire was kindled in the fields and did any damage, he who kindled it was to make the damage good. (Exod. xxii. 6.)

(3.) *Compensation*, not commanded, but only allowed, by law, to be given to a person injured, that he might depart from his suit, and not insist on the legal punishment, whether corporal or capital. It is termed either מַנְיָ (ONESH), that is, *Compensation* or פְּדִיּוֹן נֶפֶשׁ (PIDJON NEPHESH), *Redemption of Life*. In one case it is most expressly permitted (Exod. xxi. 30.); but it is prohibited in the case of murder and also in homicide. (Numb. xxxv. 31, 32.) The highest fine leviable by the law of Moses was *one hundred shekels* of silver, a great sum in those times, when the precious metals were rare.

4. To this class of punishments may be referred the *Sin* and *Trespass Offerings* which were in the nature of punishments. T

were in general extremely moderate and were enjoined in the following cases :

(1.) For every unintentional transgression of the Levitical law, even if it was a sin of *commission*, (for in the Mosaic doctrine concerning sin and trespass offerings, all transgressions are divided into sins of *commission*, and sins of *omission*) a sin offering was to be made, and thereupon the legal punishment was remitted, which, in the case of wilful transgression, was nothing less than extirpation. (Lev. iv. 2. v. 1. 4—7.)

(2.) Whoever had made a rash oath, and had not kept it, was obliged to make a sin-offering; not, however, for his inconsideration, but for his neglect. (Lev. v. 4.)

(3.) Whoever had, as a witness, been guilty of perjury — not, however, to impeach an innocent man, (for in that case the *lex talionis* operated,) but — in not testifying what he knew against a guilty person, or in any other respect concerning the matter in question; and in consequence thereof felt disquieted in his conscience, might, without being liable to any farther punishment, or ignominy, obtain remission of the perjury, by a confession of it, accompanied with a trespass-offering. (Lev. v. 1.)

(4.) Whoever had incurred debt to the sanctuary, that is, had not conscientiously paid his tithes, had his crime cancelled by making a trespass-offering, and making up his deficiencies with twenty per cent. over and above. (Lev. v. 14, 15.)

(5.) The same was the rule, where a person denied any thing given him in trust, or any thing lost, which he had found, or any promise he had made; or again, where he had acquired any property dishonestly, and had his conscience awakened on account of it, — even where it was a theft, of which he had once cleared himself by oath, but was now moved by the impulse of his conscience to make voluntary restitution, and wished to get rid of the guilt. (Lev. vi. 1—7.) By the offering made on such an occasion, the preceding crime was wholly cancelled; and because the delinquent would otherwise have had to make restitution from *two to five* fold, he now gave twenty per cent. over and above the amount of his theft.

(6.) In the case of adultery committed with a slave, an offering was appointed by Lev. xix. 20—22.: which did not, however, wholly cancel the punishment, but mitigated it from death, which was the established punishment of adultery, to that of stripes.

Such measures as these, Michaelis remarks, must have had a great effect in prompting to the restitution of property unjustly acquired: but in the case of crimes, of which the good of the community expressly required that the legal punishment should uniformly and actually be put in execution, no such offering could be accepted.

5. *Imprisonment* does not appear to have been imposed by Moses as a punishment, though he could not be unacquainted with it; for he describes it as in use among the Egyptians. (Gen. xxxix. 20, 21.)

The only time he mentions it, or more properly *arrest*, is solely for the purpose of keeping the culprit safe until judgment should be given on his conduct. (Lev. xxiv. 12.) In later times, however, the punishment of the prison came into use among the Israelites and Jews; whose history, under the monarchs, abounds with instances of their imprisoning persons, especially the prophets, who were obnoxious to them for their faithful reproofs of their sins and crimes. Thus, Asa committed the prophet Hanani to prison, for reproving him (2 Chron. xvi. 10.)¹; Ahab committed Micaiah (1 Kings xxii. 27.), as Zedekiah did the prophet Jeremiah, for the same offence. (Jer. xxxvii. 21.) John the Baptist was imprisoned by Herod, misnamed the Great (Matt. iv. 12.) and Peter, by Herod Agrippa. (Acts xii. 4.) Debtors (Matt. xviii. 30.) and murderers (Luke xxiii. 19.), were also committed to prison. We read also of *Τηρησις Δημόσια*, a common prison, a public gaol (Acts v. 18.), which was a place of durance and confinement for the worst sort of offenders. In their prisons, there was usually a dungeon (Jer. xxxviii. 6.), or a *pit* or *cistern*, as the word בֹּרַר (BOR) is rendered in Zech. ix. 11. where it unquestionably refers to a prison: and from this word we may conceive the nature of a dungeon, viz. that it was a place, in which indeed there was no water, but in its bottom deep mud; and accordingly we read that Jeremiah, who was cast into this worst and lowest part of the prison, *sunk into the mire*. (Jer. xxxviii. 6.) From such a horrid place was Joseph brought hastily out, in order to be presented to Pharaoh. (Gen. xli. 14.)

In the prisons also were *Stocks*, for detaining the person of the prisoner more securely. (Jer. xx. 2. xxix. 26.) Michaelis conjectures that they were of the sort by the Greeks called Πεντασφυγγον, wherein the prisoner was so confined, that his body was kept in an unnatural position, which must have proved a torture truly insupportable. The Εσωτερα Φυλακη, or *Inner Prison*, into which Paul and Silas were thrust at Philippi, is supposed to have been the same as the pit or cistern above noticed; and here *their feet were made fast in the wooden stocks* (Acts xvi. 24.), το ξυλον. As this prison was under the Roman government, these stocks are supposed to have been the *cippi* or large pieces of wood in use among that people, which not only loaded the legs of prisoners, but sometimes distended them in a very painful manner. Hence the situation of Paul and Silas would be rendered more painful than that of an offender sitting in the stocks, as used among us; especially if (as is very possible) they lay on the hard or dirty ground, with their bare backs, lacerated by recent scourging.²

The keepers of the prison antiently had, as in the East they still

¹ This place is termed the *prison-house*: but it appears that suspected persons were sometimes confined in part of the house which was occupied by the great officers of state, and was converted into a prison for this purpose. In this manner Jeremiah was at first confined (Jer. xxxvii. 15.); and a similar practice obtains in the East to this day. See Harmer's Observations, vol. iii. p. 503.

² Doddridge's Expositor, on Acts xvi. 24.

have, a discretionary power to treat their prisoners just as they please; nothing further being required of them, than to produce them when called for. According to the accurate and observant traveller, Chardin, the gaoler is master, to do as he pleases; to treat his prisoner well or ill; to put him in irons or not, to shut him up closely, or to hold him in easier restraint; to admit persons to him, or to suffer no one to see him. If the gaoler and his servants receive large fees, however base may be the character of the prisoner, he shall be lodged in the best part of the gaoler's own apartment: and, on the contrary, if the persons, who have caused the prisoner to be confined, make the gaoler greater presents, he will treat his victim with the utmost inhumanity. Chardin illustrates this statement by a narrative of the treatment received by a very great Armenian merchant. While he bribed the gaoler, the latter treated him with the greatest lenity; but afterwards, when the adverse party presented a considerable sum of money, first to the judge, and afterwards to the gaoler, the hapless Armenian first felt his privileges retrenched: he was next closely confined, and then was treated with such inhumanity, as not to be permitted to drink oftener than once in twenty-four hours, even during the hottest time in the summer. No person was allowed to approach him but the servants of the prison: at length he was thrown into a dungeon, where he was in a quarter of an hour brought to the point to which all this severe usage was designed to force him.¹ What energy does this account of an eastern prison give to those passages of Scripture, which speak of the *soul coming into iron* (Psal. cv. 17. marginal rendering), of the *sorrowful SIGHING of the prisoner coming before God* (Psal. lxxix. 11.), and of Jeremiah's being kept in a dungeon many days, and supplicating that he might not be remanded thither lest he should die! (Jer. xxxvii. 16—20.)

5. *Banishment* was not a punishment enjoined by the Mosaic law; but after the captivity, both exile and forfeiture of property were introduced among the Jews: and it also existed under the Romans, by whom it was called *diminutio capitis*, because the person banished lost the right of a citizen, and the city of Rome thereby lost a head.² But there was another kind of exile, termed *disportatio*, which was accounted the worst kind. The party banished forfeited his estate; and being bound was put on board ship, and transported to some island specified exclusively by the emperor, there to be confined in perpetual banishment. In this manner the apostle John was exiled to the little island of Patmos (Rev. i. 9.), where he wrote his Revelation.

6. In the East, antiently, it was the custom to *put out the eyes of prisoners*. Thus Sampson was deprived of sight by the Philistines (Judg. xvi. 21.), and Zedekiah by the Chaldees. (2 Kings xxv. 7.) It is well known that cutting out one or both of the eyes has been frequently practised in Persia, as a punishment for treasonable

¹ Harmer's Observations, vol. iii. pp. 504, 505.

² Dr. Adam's Roman Antiquities, pp. 66, 67.

offences. To the great work of restoring eye-balls to the sightless by the Messiah, the prophet Isaiah probably alludes in his beautiful prediction cited by our Lord, and applied to himself in Luke iv. 18.¹

7. *Cutting off the hair* of criminals seems to be rather an ignominious than a painful mode of punishment: yet it appears that pain was added to the disgrace, and that the hair was violently plucked off, as if the executioner were plucking a bird alive. This is the literal meaning of the original word, which in Neh. xiii. 25. is rendered *plucked off their hair*; sometimes hot ashes were applied to the skin after the hair was torn off, in order to render the pain more exquisitely acute. In the spurious book, commonly termed the fourth book of Maccabees, it is said that the tyrant Antiochus Epiphanes caused the hair and skin to be entirely torn off the heads of some of the seven Maccabean brethren. As an historical composition this book is utterly destitute of credit; but it shews that the mode of punishment under consideration was not unusual in the East. This sort of torture is said to have been frequently inflicted on the early martyrs and confessors for the Christian faith.

8. *Exclusion from sacred worship, or Excommunication*, was not only an ecclesiastical punishment, but also a civil one; because in this theocratic republic, there was no distinction between the divine and the civil right. The earliest vestiges of this punishment are to be found after the return from the Babylonish captivity. In later times, according to the rabbinical writers, there were three degrees of excommunication among the Jews. The *first* was called נִדּוּי (NIDUI), removal or separation from all intercourse with society: this is, in the New Testament, frequently termed casting out of the synagogue. (John ix. 22. xvi. 2. Luke vi. 22. &c.) This was in force for thirty days, and might be shortened by repentance. If the person continued in his obstinacy after that time, the excommunication was renewed with additional solemn maledictions. This *second* degree was called חֵרֶם (CHEREM), which signifies to *anathematise* or devote to death. The third, and last degree of excommunication was termed שֶׁם אֵתָא (SHAM-ATHA) or מָרַן אֵתָא (MARAN-ATHA), that is, *the Lord cometh*, or *may the Lord come*; intimating that those against whom it was fulminated, had nothing more to expect but the terrible day of judgment.

The condition of those who were excommunicated was the most deplorable that can be imagined. They were debarred of all social intercourse, and were excluded from the temple and the synagogues, on pain of severe corporal punishment. Whoever had incurred this sentence was loaded with imprecations, as appears from Deut. xxvii. where the expression *cursed is he*, is so often repeated: whence to *curse* and to *excommunicate* were equivalent terms with the Jews. And therefore St. Paul says that *no man, speaking by the Spirit of God, calleth Jesus anathema* or *accursed* (1 Cor. xii. 3.),

that is, curses Him as the Jews did, who denied him to be the Messiah, and excommunicated the Christians. In the second degree, they delivered the excommunicated party over to Satan, devoting him by a solemn curse: to this purpose St. Paul is supposed to allude (1 Cor. v. 5.);* and in this sense he expresses his desire even to be *accursed for his brethren* (Rom. ix. 3.), that is, to be excommunicated, laden with curses, and to suffer all the miseries consequent on the infliction of this punishment, if it could have been of any service to his brethren the Jews. In order to impress the minds of the people with the greater horror, it is said that, when the offence was published in the synagogue, all the candles were lighted, and when the proclamation was finished, they were extinguished, as a sign that the excommunicated person was deprived of the light of Heaven; further, his goods were confiscated, his sons were not admitted to circumcision; and if he died without repentance or absolution, by the sentence of the judge a stone was to be cast upon his coffin or bier, in order to shew that he deserved to be stoned.¹

II. The Talmudical writers have distinguished the CAPITAL PUNISHMENTS of the Jews into *lesser deaths*, and such as were *more grievous*; but there is no warrant in the Scriptures for these distinctions, neither are these writers agreed among themselves what particular punishments are to be referred to these two heads. A capital crime was termed, generally, a *sin of death* (Deut. xxii. 26.), or a *sin worthy of death* (Deut. xxi. 22.); which mode of expression is adopted, or rather imitated, by the apostle John, who distinguishes between a *sin unto death*, and a *sin NOT unto death*. (1 John v. 16.) Criminals, or those who were deemed worthy of capital punishment, were called *sons or men of death* (1 Sam. xx. 31. xxvi. 16. 2 Sam. xix. 29. marginal rendering); just as he who had incurred the punishment of scourging was designated a *son of stripes*. (Deut. xxv. 2. Heb.) Those who suffered a capital punishment, were said to be *put to death for their own sin*. (Deut. xxiv. 16. 2 Kings xiv. 6.) A similar phraseology was adopted by Jesus Christ, when he said to the Jews, *ye shall die in your sins*. (John viii. 21. 24.) Eleven different sorts of capital punishments are mentioned in the sacred writings, viz.

1. *Slaying by the sword* is commonly confounded with decapitation or beheading. They were however two distinct punishments. The laws of Moses are totally silent concerning the latter practice, and it appears that those who were slain with the sword were put to death in any way which the executioner thought proper. See 1 Kings ii. 25. 29. 31. 34. 46. This punishment was inflicted in two cases:—(1.) When a murderer was to be put to death; and (2.) When a whole city or tribe was hostilely attacked for an enormous crime, *they smote all* (as the Hebrew phrase is) *with the sword* the

¹ Grotius's Note, or rather Dissertation, on Luke vi. 22. Lightfoot's Works, vol. ii. pp. 747–749. Selden, de Jure Naturæ et Gentium, lib. iv. c. 6.

sword. (Dent. xiii. 13—16.) Here doubtless the sword was used by every one as he found opportunity.

With respect to the case of murder, frequent mention is made in the Old Testament of the גּוֹעַל (GOËL) or *blood-avenger*; various regulations were made by Moses concerning this person.

The inhabitants of the East, it is well known, are now, what they antiently were, exceedingly revengeful. If, therefore, an individual should unfortunately happen to lay violent hands upon another person and kill him, the next of kin is bound to avenge the death of the latter, and to pursue the murderer with unceasing vigilance until he have caught and killed him, either by force or by fraud. The same custom exists in Arabia and Persia¹ and also among the Circassians², Nubians³, and Abyssinians⁴, and it appears to have been alluded to by Rebecca: when she learned that Esau was threatening to kill his brother Jacob, she endeavoured to send the latter out of the country, saying, *Why should I be bereft of you both in one day?* (Gen. xxvii. 15.) She could not be afraid of the magistrate for punishing the murder, for the patriarchs were subject to no superior in Palestine: and Isaac was much too partial to Esau, for her to entertain any expectation that he would condemn him to death for it. It would therefore appear that she dreaded lest he should fall by the hand of the *blood-avenger*, perhaps of some Ishmaelite. The office, therefore, of the Goël was in use before the time of Moses, and it was probably filled by the nearest of blood to the party killed, as the right of redeeming a mortgaged field is given

¹ "The interest of the common safety has, for ages, established a law among them" (the Arabians), "which decrees that the blood of every man, who is slain, must be avenged by that of his murderer. This vengeance is called *tar*, or retaliation; and the right of exacting it devolves on the nearest of kin to the deceased. So nice are the Arabs on this point of honour, that, if any one neglects to seek his retaliation, he is disgraced forever. He therefore watches every opportunity of revenge: if his enemy perishes from any other cause, still he is not satisfied, and his vengeance is directed against the nearest relation. These animosities are transmitted, as an inheritance, from father to children, and never cease but by the extinction of one of the families, unless they agree to sacrifice the criminal, or purchase the blood for a stated price, in money or in flocks. Without this satisfaction there is neither peace, nor truce, nor alliance between them; nor, sometimes, even between whole tribes. There is blood between us, say they, on every occasion; and this expression is an insurmountable barrier." — (Volney's Travels in Egypt and Syria, vol. i. p. 367. See also Niebuhr, Description de l'Arabie, pp. 26—30.) — In Turkey and in Persia murder is never prosecuted by the officers of the government. It is the business of the next relations, and of them only, to revenge the slaughter of their kinsmen; and if they rather choose, as they generally do, to compound the matter for money, nothing more is said about it. — Lady M. W. Montague's Letters, let. 42. Sir R. K. Porter's Travels, vol. ii. p. 75, 76.

² Among the Circassians, all the relatives of the murderers are considered as guilty. This customary imputation to avenge the blood of relations, generates most of the feuds, and occasions great bloodshed among all the tribes of Caucasus; for, unless pardon be purchased, or obtained by intermarriage between the two families, the principle of revenge is propagated to all succeeding generations. If the thirst of vengeance is quenched by a price paid to the family of the deceased, this tribute is called *Thil-Uasa*, or the price of blood, but neither princes nor lords (or nobles) accept of such a compensation, as it is an established law among them, to demand blood for blood. — Pallas, Voyage dans les Gouvernemens Méridionaux de l'Empire de Russie, tome i. p. 441. Paris, 1805.

³ Light's Travels in Egypt, Nubia, &c. p. 95. Burckhardt's Travels in Nubia, p. 138.

⁴ Salt's Voyage to Abyssinia, pp. 345, 346.

to him. To prevent the unnecessary loss of life through a sanguinary spirit of revenge, the Hebrew legislator made various enactments concerning the blood-avenger. In most ages and countries, certain reputed sacred places enjoyed the privileges of being asylums: Moses, therefore, taking it for granted that the murderer would flee to the altar, commanded that when the crime was deliberate and intentional, he should be torn even from the altar, and put to death. (Exod. xxi. 14.) But in the case of unintentional murder, the man-slayer was enjoined to flee to one of the six cities of refuge which (we have already seen) were appropriated for his residence. The roads to these cities, it was enacted, should be kept in such a state that the unfortunate individual might meet with no impediment whatever in his way. (Deut. xix. 3.) If the Goël overtook the fugitive before he reached an asylum, and put him to death, he was not considered as guilty of blood: but if the man-slayer had reached a place of refuge, he was immediately protected, and an inquiry was instituted whether he had a right to such protection and asylum, that is, whether he had caused his neighbour's death *undesignedly*, or was a *deliberate murderer*. In the latter case he was judicially delivered to the Goël, who might put him to death in whatever way he chose: but in the former case the homicide continued in the place of refuge until the high priest's death, when he might return home in perfect security. If, however, the Goël found him without the city or beyond its suburbs, he might slay him without being guilty of blood. (Numb. xxxv. 26, 27.) Further to guard the life of man, and prevent the perpetration of murder, Moses positively prohibited the receiving of a sum of money from a murderer in the way of compensation. (Numb. xxxv. 31.) It should seem that if no avenger of blood appeared, or if he were dilatory in the pursuit of the murderer, it became the duty of the magistrate himself to inflict the sentence of the law; and thus we find that David deemed this to be his duty in the case of Joab, and that Solomon, in obedience to his father's dying intreaty, actually discharged it by putting that murderer to death. (1 Kings ii. 5, 6. 28—34.) There is a beautiful allusion to the blood-avenger in Heb. vi. 17, 18.

Hewing in pieces with the sword may be referred to this class of punishments. Thus Agag was executed, as a criminal, by the prophet Samuel (1 Sam. xv. 33.); and recent travellers inform us that criminals are literally hewed in pieces in Abyssinia, Persia, and in Asiatic Turkey.

2. *Stoning* was denounced against idolaters, blasphemers, sabbath-breakers, incestuous persons, witches, wizards, and children who either cursed their parents or rebelled against them. (Lev. xxiv. 14. Deut. xii. 10. xvii. 5. xxi. 21. and xxii. 21, 22.) It was the most general punishment denounced in the law against notorious criminals; and this kind of punishment is intended by the indefinite

1 Harmer's Travels, vol. iv. p. 81. Harmer's Observations, vol. iv. pp. 229, 230.
Cassini's Travels in Egypt, Nubia, &c. v. 194.

term of *putting to death*. (Lev. xx. 10. compared with John viii. 5.) Michaelis supposes that the culprit was bound, previously to the execution of his sentence. The witnesses threw the first stones, and the rest of the people then followed their example. Instances of persons being stoned in the Old Testament, occur in Achan (Josh. vii. 25.), Adoram (1 Kings xii. 18.), Naboth (1 Kings xxi. 10.), and Zechariah (2 Chron. xxiv. 21.)

In the New Testament we meet with vestiges of a punishment, which has frequently been confounded with lapidation: it originated in the latter times of the Jewish commonwealth, and was termed the *rebel's beating*. It was often fatal, and was inflicted by the mob with their fists, or staves, or stones, without mercy, or the sentence of the judges. Whoever transgressed against a prohibition of the wise men, or of the scribes, which had its foundation in the law, was delivered over to the people to be used in this manner, and was called a *son of rebellion*.¹ The frequent taking up of stones by the Jews against our Saviour, mentioned in the New Testament, and also the stoning of Stephen (Acts vii. 59.), and of Paul (Acts xiv. 19.), were instances of this kind.

Although the law of Moses punished no one with infamy, during life, yet three marks of infamy are denounced against those who were punished capitally, viz. :—(1.) *Burning* the criminal who had been stoned, agreeably to the antient consuetudinary law. (Gen. xxxviii. 24. Lev. xx. 14. xxi. 9.)—(2.) *Hanging*, either on a tree or on a gibbet (for the Hebrew word signifies both): which was practised in Egypt (Gen. xl. 17—19.), and also enjoined by Moses. (Numb. xxv. 4, 5. Deut. xxi. 22.) The five Canaanitish kings were first slain and then hanged. (Josh. x. 26.) Persons who were hanged were considered as *accursed of God*, that is, punished by him and abominable; on which account they were to be taken down and buried the same day. (Deut. xxi. 23.) The hanging of Saul's sons, recorded in 2 Sam. xxi. 6., was done, *not* by the Israelites, but by the *Gibeonites*, who were of Canaanitish origin, and probably retained their old laws. The hanging mentioned by Moses was widely different from crucifixion, which was a Roman punishment; on account of its ignominy, however, the Jews subsequently extended the declaration of Moses to it, and accounted the crucified person as *accursed*. (John xix. 31—34. Gal. iii. 13.)—(3.) The *Heaping of stones*, on the bodies of criminals, who had been already stoned to death, or slain by the sword, or upon their remains, when consumed by fire. Such a heap was accumulated over Achan (Josh. vii. 25, 26.), and also over Absalom. (2 Sam. xviii. 17.) The Arabs, long after the time of David, expressed their detestation of deceased enemies in the same manner.² Similar heaps were raised over persons murdered in the highway, in the time of the prophet Ezekiel

¹ Dr. Lightfoot's Works, vol. i. pp. 901, 909.

² Michaelis has given some instances of this practice, see his Commentaries, vol. iii. p. 430.

(xxxix. 15.); as they also are to this day, in Palestine, and other parts of the East.¹

3. *Burning offenders alive* is a punishment which Moses commanded to be inflicted on the daughters of priests, who should be guilty of fornication (Lev. xxi. 9.), and upon a man who should marry both the mother and the daughter. (Lev. xx. 14.) This punishment seems to have been in use in the east, from a very early period. When Judah was informed that his daughter-in-law Tamar was pregnant, he condemned her to be burnt. (Gen. xxxviii. 24.) Many ages afterwards we find the Babylonians or Chaldeans burning certain offenders alive (Jer. xxix. 22. Dan. iii. 6.); and this mode of punishment was not uncommon in the east so lately as the seventeenth century.²

The preceding are the only capital punishments denounced in the Mosaic Law: in subsequent times others were introduced among the Jews, as their intercourse increased with foreign nations.

4. *Decapitation*, or beheading, though not a mode of punishment enjoined by Moses, was certainly in use before his time. It existed in Egypt (Gen. xl. 19.), and it is well known to have been inflicted under the princes of the Herodian family. Thus John the Baptist was beheaded (Matt. xiv. 8—12.) by one of Herod's life-guards, who was dispatched to his prison for that purpose. (Mark vi. 27.)

5. *Precipitation*, or casting headlong from a window, or from a precipice, was a punishment rarely used; though we meet with it in the history of the kings, and in subsequent times. Thus, the profligate Jezebel was precipitated out of a window (2 Kings ix. 30. 33.), and the same mode of punishment still obtains in Persia.³ Amaziah, king of Judah, barbarously forced ten thousand Idumean prisoners of war to leap from the top of a high rock. (2 Chron. xxv. 12.) The Jews attempted to precipitate Jesus Christ from the brow of a mountain. (Luke iv. 29.) James, surnamed the Just, was thrown from the highest part of the temple into the subjacent valley. The same mode of punishment, it is well known, obtained among the Romans, who used to throw certain malefactors from the Tarpeian rock.⁴ The same practice obtains among the Moors at Constantine, a town in Barbary.⁵

6. *Drowning* was a punishment in use among the Syrians, and was well known to the Jews in the time of our Saviour, though we

¹ Dr. Shaw's *Travels in Barbary*, vol. i. Pref. p. xviii. See also

² Chardin, in his *Travels*, (vol. vi. p. 118. of Langle's edition,) after mentioning of the most common modes of punishing with death, says, "But there is still another way of putting to death such as have transgressed in civil affairs, either by committing a death, or by selling above the tax by a false weight, or who have committed a crime in any other manner. The cooks are put upon a spit and roasted over a slow fire." (Jeremiah xxix. 22.), bakers are thrown into a hot oven. During the dearth, 1692, saw such ovens heated on the royal square in 'Isphahan, to terrify the bakers, and deter them from deriving advantage from the general distress." — *Burder's Oriental Literature*, vol. ii. p. 204.

³ Sir R. Porter's *Travels in Persia*, vol. ii. pp. 28—30.

⁴ Tacitus, *Annals*, vi. c. 20.

⁵ *History and Manners of the Mahometans*, pp. 414, 415. London edit. 1810.

have no evidence that it was practised by them. It was also in use among the Greeks and Romans. The emperor Augustus, we are told, punished certain persons, who had been guilty of rapacity in the province (of Syria or of Lycia), by causing them to be thrown into a river, with a heavy weight about their necks.¹ Josephus² also tells us that the Galileans revolting, drowned the partisans of Herod in the sea of Gennesareth. To this mode of capital punishment Jesus Christ alludes in Matt. xviii. 6.³

7. *Bruising, or Pounding in a mortar*, is a punishment still in use among the Turks. The ulema or body of lawyers are, in Turkey, exempted from confiscation of their property, and from being put to death, except by the pestle and mortar. Some of the Turkish guards, who had permitted the escape of the Polish prince Coreski in 1618, were pounded to death in great mortars of iron.⁴ This horrid punishment was not unknown in the time of Solomon, who expressly alludes to it in Prov. xxvii. 22.

8. *Dichotomy, or Cutting asunder*, was a capital punishment antiently in use in the countries contiguous to Judæa. The rabbinical writers report that Isaiah was thus put to death by the profligate Manasseh; and to this Saint Paul is supposed to allude. (Heb. xi. 37.) Nebuchadnezzar threatened it to the Chaldee magi, if they did not interpret his dream (Dan. ii. 5.), and also to the blasphemers of the true God. (Dan. iii. 29.) Herodotus says, that Salmichus had a vision, in which he was commanded to *cut in two* all the Egyptian priests; and that Xerxes ordered one of the sons of Pythias to be cut in two, and one half placed on each side of the way, that his army might pass between them.⁵ Trajan is said to have inflicted this punishment on some rebellious Jews. It is still practised by the Moors of Western Barbary, and also in Persia.⁶

The heads, hands, and feet of state criminals, were also frequently cut off, and fixed up in the most public places, as a warning to others. This punishment obtains among the Turks, and was inflicted on the sons of Rimmon, (who had treacherously murdered Ishbosheth,) by command of David: who further ordered that the assassins' hands and feet should be hung up over the pool of Hebron, which was probably a place of great resort.⁷ Among the ancient Chaldeans, cutting off the nose and ears was a common punishment of adulterers. To this the prophet Ezekiel alludes. (xxiii. 25.)

¹ Suetonius, *in Augusto*, c. 67.

² Ant. Jud. lib. xiv. c. 15. § 10.

³ Grotius, *in loc.*

⁴ Knolles's History of the Turks, vol. ii. p. 947. Lond. 1687.

⁵ Raphaelii Annotationes in Nov. Test. ex Herodoto, tom. i. p. 378. Other instances from ancient writers are given by Dr. Whitby, on Matt. xxix. 51. and Kuinoel, Comment. in Hist. Lib. Nov. Test. vol. i. p. 633.

⁶ Shaw's Travels, vol. i. p. 457. Morier's Second Journey, p. 96.

⁷ Hammer's Observations, vol. i. pp. 501, 502. This kind of punishment was in use in the time of Mohammed, who interprets Pharaoh as saying, *I will surely cut off your hands and your feet on the opposite sides*; that is, first the right hand, and then the left foot; next the left hand, and then the right foot. Koran, ch. xx. 74. and xxvi. 49. (Sale's translation, pp. 259. 304. 4to. edit.) See additional examples of such mutilations in Burder's Oriental Literature, vol. ii. p. 186. Wilton's Travels in Egypt and the Holy Land, pp. 375—377.

9. *Beating to death* (Τυμpanισμος) was practised by Antiochus towards the Jews (2 Macc. vi. 19. 28. 30.), and is referred to by Saint Paul. (Heb. xi. 35. Gr.) This was a punishment in use among the Greeks, and was usually inflicted upon slaves. The real or supposed culprit was fastened to a stake, and beaten to death with sticks. The same punishment is still in use among the Turks, under the appellation of the bastinado : with them, however, it is seldom mortal.

10. *Exposing to Wild Beasts* appears to have been a punishment among the Medes and Persians. It was inflicted first on the exemplary prophet Daniel, who was miraculously preserved, and afterwards on his accusers, who miserably perished. (Dan. vi. 7. 12. 16—24.) From them it appears to have passed to the Romans.¹ In their theatres they had two sorts of *amusements*, each sufficiently barbarous. Sometimes they cast men naked to the wild beasts, to be devoured by them : this punishment was inflicted on slaves and vile persons. Sometimes persons were sent into the theatre, armed, to fight with wild beasts : if they conquered, they had their lives and liberty : but if not, they fell a prey to the beasts. To this latter usage (concerning which some further particulars are given in a subsequent page,) Saint Paul refers in 2 Tim. iv. 17. and 1 Cor. xv. 32.

In the case of certain extraordinary criminals, besides inflicting upon them the sentence to which they had been condemned, it was not unusual to demolish their houses, and reduce them to a common place for filth and dung. Among other things, Nebuchadnezzar denounced this disgrace to the diviners of Chaldaea, if they did not declare his dream to him (Dan. ii. 5.) ; and afterwards to all such as should not worship the God of Shadrach, Meshech, and Abednego. (Dan. iii. 29.) And Darius threatened the same punishment to those who should molest the Jews. (Ezra vi. 11.) In this way the Romans destroyed the house of Spurius Cassius, after they had precipitated him from the Tarpeian rock, for having (as they said,) aimed at tyranny.²

11. *CRUCIFIXION* was a punishment which the antients inflicted only on the most notorious criminals and malefactors. The cross was made of two beams, either crossing at the top at right angles, or in the middle of their length like an X. There was, besides, a piece on the centre of the transverse beam, to which was attached the accusation, or statement of the culprit's crime ; together with a piece of wood that projected from the middle, on which the person sat as on a kind of saddle, and by which the whole body was supported. Justin Martyr, in his dialogue with Trypho the Jew, gives this description ; and it is worthy of note, that he lived in the former part of the second century of the Christian æra, before the punishment of the cross was abolished. The cross, on which our Lord

¹ This barbarous mode of punishment still exists in Morocco. See an interesting extract from Hôst's Account of Morocco and Fez, in Burder's Oriental Literature, vol. ii. p. 207.

² Dionys. Halicarnass. lib. viii. c. 78, 79.

suffered, was of the former kind, being thus represented on all antient monuments, coins, and crosses.

Crucifixion is one of the most cruel and excruciating deaths, which the art of ingeniously tormenting and extinguishing life ever devised. The naked body of the criminal was fastened to the upright beam by nailing or tying the feet to it, and on the transverse beam by nailing and sometimes tying the hands to it. Those members, being the grand instruments of motion, are provided with a greater quantity of nerves, which (especially those of the hands) are peculiarly sensible. As the nerves are the instruments of all sensation or feeling, wounds in the parts where they abound must be peculiarly painful; especially when inflicted with such rude instruments as large nails, forcibly driven through the exquisitely delicate tendons, nerves, and bones of those parts. The horror of this punishment will appear, when it is considered that the person was permitted to hang (the whole weight of his body being borne up by his nailed hands and feet, and by the projecting piece in the middle of the cross,) until he perished through agony and want of food. There are instances of crucified persons living in this exquisite torture several days. The wise and adorable Author of our being has formed and constituted the fabric of our bodies in such a merciful manner, that nothing violent is lasting. Friendly death sealed the eyes of those wretches generally in three days. Hunger, thirst, and acute pain dismissed them from their intolerable sufferings. The rites of sepulture were denied them. Their dead bodies were generally left on the crosses on which they were first suspended, and became a prey to every ravenous beast and carnivorous bird.¹

(1.) Crucifixion obtained among several antient nations, the Egyptians², Persians, Greeks³, and Carthaginians. The Carthaginians generally adjudged to this death their unfortunate and unsuccessful commanders.⁴ There are many unhappy instances of this. They crucified Bonilcar⁵, whom Justin calls their king, when they detected his intended design of joining Agathocles. They erected a cross in the midst of the forum, on which they

¹ *Pasces in cruce corvos.* Horat. Epist. lib. i. epist. 16. ver. 48.

Vultur, jumento et canibus, crucibusque relictis

Ad foetus properat, partemque cadaveris affert.

Juvenal, Satyr. 14. ver. 77, 78.

² *Thucydides, lib. i. sect. 110. p. 71. edit. Duker.* Justin, treating of the affairs of Egypt, says: *Concursu multitudinis et Agathocles occiditur, et mulieres in ultionem Eurydices patibulis suffliguntur.* Justin, lib. xxx. cap. 2. p. 578. edit. Gronovii. *Herodoti Erato, p. 451. edit. Wesseling, 1763.* See also *Thalia, p. 260.* and *Polyhymnia, p. 617. ejusdem editionis.*

³ *Alexander crucified two thousand Tyrians. Triste deinde spectaculum victoribus ira praeibit regis; duo millia, in quibus occidendi defecerat rabies, crucibus adfixi per ingens litoris spatium, dependerunt.* Q. Curtii, lib. iv. cap. 4. p. 187. edit. Snakenburgh, 1724. See also *Plutarch in vita Alex.* and *Justin, lib. xviii. cap. 3.*

⁴ *Duces bella pravo consilio gerentes, etiamsi prospera fortuna subsecuta esset, cruci tamen suffigebantur.* Valerius Maximus, lib. ii. cap. 7. p. 191. edit. Torren. Leidæ, 1726.

⁵ *Bonilcar rex Pœnorum in medio foro a Pœnis patibulo suffixus est. De Summa cruce, veluti de tribunali, Pœnorum scelera concionaretur.* Justin, lib. xxii. cap. 7. p. 505. ed. Gronovii.

suspended him; and from which, with a great and unconquered spirit, amidst all his sufferings, he bitterly inveighed against them, and upbraided them with all the black and atrocious crimes they had lately perpetrated. But this manner of executing criminals prevailed most among the Romans. It was generally a servile punishment, and chiefly inflicted on vile, worthless, and incorrigible slaves.¹ In reference to this, the apostle, describing the condescension of Jesus, and his submission to this most opprobrious death, represents him as taking upon him the form of a servant (Phil. ii. 7, 8.) and becoming obedient to death, even the death of the cross.

(2.) "It was universally and deservedly reputed the most shameful and ignominious death to which a wretch could be exposed. In such an exit were comprised every idea and circumstance of odium, disgrace, and public scandal." Hence the apostle magnifies and extols the great love of our Redeemer, "in that while we were yet sinners, Christ died for us," and "for the joy set before him, endured the cross, despising the shame" (Rom. v. 8. Heb. xii. 2.); disregarding every circumstance of public indignity and infamy with which such a death was loaded. It was from the idea they connected with such a death, that the Greeks treated the apostles with the last contempt and pity for publicly embarking in the cause of a person who had been brought to this reproachful and dishonourable death by his own countrymen. The preaching of the cross was to them foolishness (1 Cor. i. 23.); the promulgation of a system of religion that had been taught by a person who, by a national act, had publicly suffered the punishment and death of the most useless and abandoned slave, was, in their ideas, the last infatuation; and the preaching of Christ crucified, publishing in the world a religion whose founder suffered on a cross, appeared the last absurdity and madness.² The Heathens looked upon the attachment of the primitive Christians to a religion, whose publisher had come to such an end, as an undoubted proof of their utter ruin, that they were destroying their interest, comfort, and happiness, by adopting such a system founded on such a dishonourable circumstance.³ The same inherent scandal and ignominy had crucifixion in the estimation of the Jews. They indeed annexed more complicated

¹ *Pone crucem servo.* Juvenal, Sat. 6. ver. 218.

² "From this circumstance," says Justin Martyr, "the Heathens are fully convinced of our madness for giving the second place after the immutable and eternal God, and Father of all, to a person who was crucified!" Justin Martyr, Apol. 2. p. 60, 61. edit. Paris, 1636. *Et qui hominem summo supplicio pro facinore punitum, et crucis ligna feralia ceremonias fabulatur, congruentia perditis sceleratisque tribuit altaria; ut ille colant quod merentur.* Minucius Felix, p. 57. edit. Davis. Cantab. 1742. *Nam quod religioni nostre hominem noxium et crucem ejus adscribitis, longe de vicina veritatis erratis.* Min. Felix, p. 147. ejusdem editionis.

³ That this was the sentiment of the Heathens concerning the Christians, St. Paul informs us, and he exhorts the Philippians not to be discouraged by it. Philippians 28. Not intimidated in any thing by your adversaries; for though they look upon your attachment to the Gospel as an undoubted proof of your utter ruin, yet to you it is a demonstration of your salvation — a salvation which hath God for its author.

wretchedness to it, for they esteemed the miscreant who was adjudged to such an end not only to be abandoned of men, but forsaken of God. He that is hanged, says the law, is accursed of God. (Deut. xxi. 23.) Hence St. Paul, representing to the Galatians the grace of Jesus, who released us from that curse to which the law of Moses devoted us, by being made a curse for us, by submitting to be treated for our sakes as an execrable malefactor, to shew the horror of such a death as Christ voluntarily endured, adds, *It is written in the law, Cursed is every one that is hanged on a tree!* (Galat. iii. 13.) And from this express declaration of the law of Moses concerning persons thus executed, we may account for that aversion the Jews discovered against Christianity, and perceive the reason of what St. Paul asserts, that their preaching of Christ crucified was to the Jews a stumbling block. (1 Cor. i. 23.) The circumstance of the cross caused them to stumble at the very gate of Christianity.¹

(3.) The several circumstances related by the four evangelists as accompanying the crucifixion of Jesus were conformable to the Roman custom in such executions: and, frequently occurring in ancient authors, do not only reflect beauty and lustre upon these passages, but happily corroborate and confirm the narrative of the sacred penmen. We will exhibit before our readers a detail of these as they are specified by the evangelists.²

Every mark of infamy that malice could suggest was accumulated on the head of our Redeemer. While he was in the high priest's house, *they did spit in his face and buffeted him, and others smote him with the palms of their hands, saying, Prophecy unto us thou Christ, who is he that smote thee?* (Matt. xxvi. 67, 68. Mark xiv. 65.) Pilate, hearing our Lord was of Galilee sent him to Herod; and before he was dismissed by him, *Herod, with his men of war, set him at nought; and mocked him, and arrayed him in a gorgeous robe.* (Luke xxiii. 11.) He was insulted and mocked by the soldiers, when Pilate ordered him to be scourged the first time; that by that lesser punishment he might satisfy the Jews and save his life, as is related by St. John. After Pilate had condemned him to be crucified, the like indignities were repeated by the soldiers, as we are assured by two evangelists. (Matt. xxvii. 27—31. Mark xv. 16—20.) *And they stripped him, and put on him a scarlet robe, and when they had*

¹ Trypho the Jew every where affects to treat the Christian religion with contempt, on account of the crucifixion of its author. He ridicules its professors for centering all their hopes in a man who was crucified! Dialog. cum Tryphone, p. 33. The person whom you call your Messiah, says he, incurred the last disgrace and ignominy, for he fell under the greatest curse in the law of God; he was crucified! p. 90. Again, we must hesitate, says Trypho, with regard to our believing a person, who was so ignominiously crucified, being the Messiah; for it is written in the law, Cursed is every one who is hanged on a cross. Justin Martyr, Dialog. cum Tryphone, p. 271. edit. Jebb. London, 1719. See also pages 272. 283. 378. 392. See also Eusebii Hist. Eccl. pp. 171. 744. Cantab.

² For this account of the crucifixion the author is indebted to Dr. Lardner's Credibility of the Gospel History, part i. book i. c. 7. §§ ix.—xvii. and Dr. Harwood's Introduction to the New Testament, vol. ii. pp. 336—353.

platted a crown of thorns¹, they put it on his head, and a reed in his right hand: and they bowed the knee before him, and mocked him, saying, Hail! king of the Jews. And they spit upon him, and took the reed, and smote him on the head.

These are tokens of contempt and ridicule which were in use at that time. Dio, among the other indignities offered to Sejanus the favourite of Tiberius (in whose reign our Saviour was crucified), as they were carrying him from the senate-house to prison, particularly mentions this,—"That they struck him on the head." But there is one instance of ridicule which happened so soon after this time, and has so great a resemblance to that to which our Saviour was exposed, that it deserves to be stated at length. Caligula, the successor of Tiberius, had, in the very beginning of his reign, given Agrippa the tetrarchy of his uncle Philip, being about the fourth part of his grandfather Herod's dominions, with the right of wearing a diadem or crown. When he was setting out from Rome to make a visit to his people, the emperor advised him to go by Alexandria as the best way. When he came thither he kept himself very private: but the Alexandrians having got intelligence of his arrival there, and of the design of his journey, were filled with envy, as Philo says, at the thoughts of a Jew having the title of king. They had recourse to various expedients, in order to manifest their indignation: one was the following:—"There was," says Philo², "one Carabas, a sort of distracted fellow, that in all seasons of the year went naked about the streets. He was somewhat between a madman and a fool, the common jest of boys and other idle people. This wretch they brought into the theatre, and placed him on a lofty seat, that he might be conspicuous to all; then they put a thing made of paper on his head for a crown, the rest of his body they covered with a mat instead of a robe, and for a sceptre one put into his hand a little piece of a reed which he had just taken up from the ground. Having thus given him a mimic royal dress, several young fellows with poles on their shoulders came and stood on each side of him as his guards. Then there came people toward him, some to pay their homage to him, others to ask justice of him, and some to know his will and pleasure concerning affairs of state; and in the crowd were loud and confused acclam-

¹ Various opinions have been offered concerning the species of thorn, intended by the sacred writers. Bartholin wrote an elaborate dissertation *De Spinea Corona*, and Lydius has collected the opinions of several writers in his *Florum Sparsio ad Historiam Passionis Jesu Christi*. (Analect. pp. 13—17.) The intelligent traveller Hasselquist says, that the *naba* or *nabka* of the Arabians "is in all probability the tree which afforded the crown of thorns put on the head of Christ: it grows very commonly in the East. This plant was very fit for the purpose; for it has many small and sharp spines, which are well adapted to give pain. The crown might easily be made of these soft round and resilient branches: and what in my opinion seems to be the greatest proof is, that the leaves very much resemble those of ivy, as they are of a very deep green." Perhaps the enemies of Christ would have a plant somewhat resembling that with which scorpions and vipers were used to be crowned, that there might be calumny even in the punishment." Hasselquist's *Voyages and Travels in the Levant*, pp. 268, 289.

In 1790. B.C.

ations of Maris, Maris; that being, as they say, the Syriac word for Lord, thereby intimating whom they intended to ridicule by all this mock shew: Agrippa being a Syrian, and king of a large country in Syria."

When Pilate had pronounced the sentence of condemnation on our Lord, and publicly adjudged him to be crucified, he gave orders that he should be scourged. *Then Pilate took Jesus and scourged him. And when he had scourged Jesus, says another of the evangelists, he delivered him to be crucified.* Among the Romans, scourging was always inflicted previously to crucifixion. Many examples might be produced of this custom. Let the following suffice. Livy, speaking of the fate of those slaves who had confederated and taken up arms against the state, says, that many of them were slain, many taken prisoners, and others, after they had been whipped or scourged¹, were suspended on crosses. Philo, relating the cruelties which Flaccus the Roman prefect exercised upon the Jews of Alexandria, says, that after they were mangled and torn with scourges² in the theatres, they were fastened to crosses. Josephus also informs us that at the siege of Jerusalem great numbers of the Jews were crucified, after they had been previously whipped, and had suffered every wanton cruelty.³

"After they had inflicted this customary flagellation, the evangelist informs us that they obliged our Lord to carry to the place of execution the cross, or at least the transverse beam of it, on which he was to be suspended. Lacerated, therefore, with the stripes and bruises he had received, faint with the loss of blood, his spirits exhausted by the cruel insults and blows that were given him when they invested him with robes of mock royalty, and oppressed with the incumbent weight of his cross; in these circumstances our Saviour was urged along the road. We doubt not but in this passage to Calvary every indignity was offered him. This was usual.⁴ Our Lord, fatigued and spent with the treatment he had received, could not support his cross. The soldiers therefore who attended him compelled one Simon, a Cyrenean, who was coming from the country to Jerusalem, and happened then to be passing by them, to carry it for him. The circumstance here mentioned of our Lord bearing his cross was agreeable to the Roman custom. Slaves and malefactors, who were condemned to this death, were compelled to carry the whole or part of the fatal gibbet on which they were destined to die. This constituted a principal part of the shame and ignominy of such a death. Cross-bearer was a term of

¹ Multi occisi, multi capti, alii verberati crucibus affixi. Livii, lib. xxxiii. 36.

² Philo in Flac. p. 529. edit. Madgey. See also pages 527, 528, ejusd. in editionis. The Roman custom was to scourge before all executions. The magistrates bringing them out into the forum, after they had scourged them according to custom, they struck off their heads. Polybii Hist. lib. ii. p. 10. tom. 1. edit. Gronovii. 1670.

³ Josephus de Bello Jud. lib. ii. c. 2. p. 353. Havercamp. Bell. Judaic. lib. ii. cap. 14. § 9. p. 182. Haverc.

⁴ Vid. Justi Lipsii de cruce, lib. ii. cap. 6. p. 1180. Vesaliæ.

the last reproach among the Romans. The miserable wretch, covered with blood, from the scourges that had been inflicted upon him, and groaning under the weight of his cross, was, all along the road to the place of execution, loaded with every wanton cruelty.¹ So extreme were the misery and sufferings of the hapless criminals who were condemned to this punishment, that Plutarch makes use of it as an illustration of the misery of sin, that every kind of wickedness produces its own particular torment; just as every malefactor, when he is brought forth to execution, carries his own cross.² He was pushed, thrown down, stimulated with goads, and impelled forwards by every act of insolence and inhumanity that could be inflicted.³ There is great reason to think that our blessed Redeemer in his way to Calvary experienced every abuse of this nature, especially when he proceeded slowly along, through languor, lassitude, and faintness, and the soldiers and rabble found his strength incapable of sustaining and dragging his cross any farther. On this occasion we imagine that our Lord suffered very cruel treatment from those who attended him. Might not the scourging that was inflicted, the blows he had received from the soldiers when in derision they paid him homage, and the abuse he suffered on his way to Calvary, greatly contribute to accelerate his death, and occasion that speedy dissolution at which one of the evangelists tells us Pilate marvelled?

“When the malefactor had carried his cross to the place of execution, a hole was dug in the earth, in which it was to be fixed; the criminal was stripped, a stupefying potion was given him, the cross was laid on the ground, the wretch distended upon it, and four soldiers, two on each side, at the same time were employed in driving four large nails through his hands and feet. After they had deeply fixed and rivetted these nails in wood, they elevated the cross with the agonising wretch upon it; and in order to fix it the more firmly and securely in the earth, they let it violently fall into the cavity they had dug to receive it. This vehement precipitation of the cross must give the person that was nailed to it a most dreadful convulsive shock, and agitate his whole frame in a dire and most excruciating manner. These several particulars the Romans observed in the crucifixion of our Lord. Upon his arrival at Calvary he was stripped: a stupefying draught was offered him, which he refused to drink. This, St. Mark says, was a composition of myrrh and wine. The design of this potion was, by its inebriating and intoxicating quality, to blunt the edge of pain, and stun the quickness of sensi-

¹ Plutarch de tardâ Dei vindictâ, p. 982. edit. Gr. 8vo. Steph. Dionysii Halicar. lib. vii. tom. i. p. 456. Oxon. 1704.

² O carnificium cribrum, quod credo fore:

Ita te forabunt patibulatunn per vias:

Stimulis, si huc reveniat senex. Plautus Mostel.

Act. i. sc. 1. ver. edit. var. 1684.

³ Nec dubium est quin impulerint, et jecerint, crexerint, per semetipsum aut per ludum. Lipsius de cruce, tom. vi. p. 1180. Vesalius.

bility.¹ Our Lord rejected this medicated cup, offered him perhaps by the kindness of some of his friends, it being his fixed resolution to meet death in all its horrors; not to alleviate and suspend its pains by any such preparation, but to submit to the death, even this death of crucifixion, with all its attendant circumstances.² He had the joy that was set before him, in procuring the salvation of men, in full and immediate view. He wanted not, therefore, on this great occasion, any thing to produce an unnatural stupor, and throw oblivion and stupefaction over his senses.³ He cheerfully and voluntarily drank the cup with all its bitter ingredients, which his heavenly Father had put into his hands. Our Lord was fastened to his cross, as was usual, by four soldiers³, two on each side, according to the respective limbs they severally nailed. While they were employed in piercing his hands and feet, it is probable that he offered to Heaven that most compassionate and affecting prayer for his murderers, in which he pleaded the only circumstance that could possibly extenuate their guilt: *Father, forgive them, for they know not what they do!* It appears from the evangelists that our Lord was crucified without the city. *And he bearing his cross went forth to a place called the place of a skull, which is called in the Hebrew Golgotha.* (John xix. 17.) *For the place where Jesus was crucified was nigh to the city.* (ver. 20.) And the apostle to the Hebrews has likewise mentioned this circumstance: *Wherefore Jesus also — suffered without the gate.* (Heb. xiii. 12.) This is conformable to the Jewish law, and to examples mentioned in the Old Testament. (Numb. xv. 35.) *And the Lord said unto Moses, The man shall surely be put to death: all the congregation shall stone him with stones without the camp.* (1 Kings xxi. 13.) *Then they carried him [Naboth] forth out of the city, and stoned him with stones that he died.* This was done at Jezreel, in the territories of the king of Israel, not far from Samaria. And if this custom was practised there, we may be certain the Jews did not choose that criminals should be executed within Jerusalem, of the sanctity of which they had so high an opinion, and which they were very zealous to preserve free from all ceremonial impurity, though they defiled it with the practice of the most horrid immoralities. It is possible indeed that they might, in their sudden and ungoverned rage, (to which they were subject in

¹ Sese multimodis conculcat ictibus, myrrhæ contra præsumptione munitus. Apuleii Metamorph. lib. viii. Again: Oclormatus myrrhæ presumptione nullis verberibus, ac ne ipsi quidem succubuit igni. Lib. x. Apuleii Met. Usque hodie, says St. Jerome, Judei omnes increduli Dominicæ resurrectionis aceto et felle potant Jesum, et dant ei vinum myrrhatum, ut dum consopiant, et mala eorum non videat. Hieronymus ad Matth. xxviii.

² See Dr. Benson's Life of Christ, p. 508.

³ Monet nos quoque non parum evangelista, qui quatuor numerat milites crucifigentes, scilicet juxta quatuor membra figenda. Quod clarum etiam est ex tunicæ partitione, quæ quatuor militibus facienda erat. Cornelli Curtii de Clavis Dominicis, p. 35. edit. Antwerpæ, 1670. The four soldiers who parted his garments, and cast lots for his vesture, were the four who raised him to the cross, each of them fixing a limb, and who, it seems, for this service had a right to the crucified person's clothes. Dr. Macknight, p. 604. second edition, 4to.

the extreme at this time,) upon any affront offered to their laws or customs, put persons who thus provoked them to death, upon the spot, in the city, or the temple, or wherever they found them; but whenever they were calm enough to admit the form of a legal process, we may be assured that they did not approve of an execution within the city. And among the Romans this custom was very common¹, at least in the provinces. The robbers of Ephesus, whom² Petronius Arbiter mentions, were crucified by order of the governor of the province without the city. This was the custom, likewise in Sicily, as appears from Cicero.³

It was customary for the Romans, on any extraordinary execution, to put over the head of the malefactor an inscription denoting the crime for which he suffered. Several examples of this occur in the Roman history.⁴ It was also usual at this time, at Jerusalem, to post up advertisements, which were designed to be read by all classes of persons, in several languages. Titus, in a message which he sent to the Jews when the city was on the point of falling into his hands, and by which he endeavoured to persuade them to surrender, says: Did you not erect pillars, *with inscriptions on them in the GREEK and in our (the LATIN) language*, "Let no one pass beyond these bounds?"⁵ In conformity to this usage, an inscription by Pilate's order was fixed above the head of Jesus, written in Hebrew, Greek and Latin, specifying what it was that had brought him to this end. This writing was by the Romans called *titulus*, a *title*⁶, and it is the very expression made use of by the Evangelist John, *Pilate wrote a TITLE* (ἐγγραφὴ ΤΙΤΑΟΝ), and put it on the cross. (John xix. 19.) After the cross was erected, a party of soldiers was appointed to keep guard⁷, and to attend at the place of execution till the criminal breathed his last; thus also we read that a body of Roman soldiers, with a centurion, were deputed to guard our Lord and the two malefactors that were crucified with him. (Matt. xxvii. 54.)

While they were thus attending them, it is said, our Saviour complained of thirst. This is a natural circumstance. The exquisitely sensible and tender extremities of the body being thus perforated, the person languishing and faint with loss of blood, and lingering under such acute and excruciating torture, — these causes must necessarily produce a vehement and excessive thirst. One of

¹ Credo ego istoc exemplo tibi esse eundem actutum extra portam, dispersis manibus patibulum quem habebis. Plautus in Mil. Glor. act. 2. scen. iv.

² Quum interim imperator provinciæ latrones jussit crucibus adfigi, secundum illam eandem casulam, in qua recens cadaver matrona deflebat. Satyr. c. 71.

³ Quid enim attinuit, cum Mamertini more atque instituto suo crucem fixissent post urbem in via Pompeia; te jubere in ea parte figere, quæ ad fretum spectaret? In Verr. lib. v. c. 66. n. 169.

⁴ Dion Cassius, lib. liv. p. 732. edit. Reimar, 1750. See also Sueton. In Caligula, c. 32. Eusebius, Hist. Eccl. lib. v. p. 206. Cantab. 1720.

⁵ Josephus, de Bell. Jud. lib. vi. c. 2. § 4.

⁶ See instances in Suetonius, in Caligula, c. 32.; and in Domitian, c. 10.

⁷ Miles exactus asservabat, ne quis corpora ad sepulturam detraheret. Petronius Arbiter, cap. 11. p. 513. edit. Burman. Traject. ad Rhen. 1799. Vid. not. ad loc.

the guards, hearing this request, hasted and took a sponge, and filled it from a vessel that stood by, that was full of vinegar. The usual drink of the Roman soldiers was vinegar and water.¹ The knowledge of this custom illustrates this passage of sacred history, as it has sometimes been inquired, for what purpose was this vessel of vinegar? Considering, however, the derision and cruel treatment which Jesus Christ had already received from the soldiers, it is by no means improbable that one of them gave him the vinegar with the design of augmenting his unparalleled sufferings. After receiving this, Jesus cried with a loud voice, and uttered with all the vehemence he could exert, that comprehensive word on which a volume might be written, *It is finished!* the important work of human redemption is finished; after which he reclined his head upon his bosom, and dismissed his spirit. (John xix. 30. Matt. xxvii. 50.)

The last circumstance to be mentioned relative to the crucifixion of our Saviour, is the petition of the Jews to Pilate, that the death of the sufferers might be accelerated, with a view to the interment of Jesus. All the four evangelists have particularly mentioned this circumstance. *Joseph of Arimathea went to Pilate, and begged the body of Jesus; then Pilate commanded the body to be delivered. And when Joseph had taken the body, he laid it in his own new tomb.* (Matt. xxvii. 58—60. Mark xv. 45, 46. Luke xxiii. 50—53. John xix. 38—40.) And it may be fairly concluded, the rulers of the Jews did not disapprove of it: since they were solicitous that the bodies might be taken down, and not hang on the cross the next day. (John xix. 31.) *The Jews therefore, says St. John, because it was the preparation, that the bodies should not remain on the cross on the sabbath day (for that sabbath day was an high day;) besought Pilate that their legs might be broken, and that they might be taken away.*

Burial was not always allowed by the Romans in these cases. For we find that sometimes a soldier was appointed to guard the bodies of malefactors, that they might not be taken away and buried.² However it seems that it was not often refused, unless the criminals were very mean and infamous. Cicero reckons it one of the horrid crimes of Verres's administration in Sicily, that he would take money of parents for the burial of their children whom he had put to death.³ Both Suetonius⁴ and Tacitus⁵ represent it as one of the uncommon cruelties of Tiberius, in the latter part of his reign,

¹ The Roman soldiers, says Dr. Huxham, drank posca (viz. water and vinegar) for their common drink, and found it very healthy and useful. Dr. Huxham's Method for preserving the Health of Seamen, in his Essay on Fevers, p. 263. 3d edition. See also Lamy's Apparatus Biblicus, vol. ii. 278. See also Macknight in loc.

² See the passage cited from Petronius Arbiter, in note 7, p. 158.

³ Rapiunt eum ad supplicium dii patris: quod iste inventus est, qui e complexu parentum abreptos filios ad necem duceret, et parentes pretium pro sepultura posceret. In Ver. lib. i. cap. 3.

⁴ Nemo punitorum non et in Gemonias abjectus uncoque tractus. Vit. Tiber. c. 61.

⁵ Et quia damnati, publicatis bonis, sepultura prohibebantur. Ann. lib. 6, c. 20.

that he generally denied burial to those who were put to death by his orders at Rome. Ulpian, in his treatise of the duty of a pro-consul, says: "The bodies of those who are condemned to death are not to be denied to their relations:" and Augustus writes, in the tenth book of his own life, "that he had been wont to observe this custom¹;" that is, to grant the bodies to relations. Paulus says: "that the bodies of those who have been punished, [with death], are to be given to any that desire them in order to burial."²

It is evident, therefore, from these two lawyers, that the governors of provinces had a right to grant burial to the bodies of those who had been executed by their order: nay, they seem to intimate that it ought not usually to be denied when requested by any.

Hence it appears, that burial was ordinarily allowed to persons who were put to death in Judæa: and the subsequent conduct of Pilate shews that it was seldom denied by the Roman governors in that country. There is, moreover, an express command in the law (of which we know that the latter Jews were religiously observant,) that the bodies of those who were hanged should not be suffered to remain all night upon the tree. (Deut. xxi. 23.)³ The next day, therefore, after the crucifixion, being, as one of the evangelists says, a *high day* (John xix. 31.), a number of leading men among the Jews waited on Pilate in a body, to desire that he would hasten the death of the malefactors hanging on their crosses. Pilate, therefore, dispatched his orders to the soldiers on duty, who broke the legs of the two criminals who were crucified along with Christ; but when they came to Jesus, finding he had already breathed his last, they thought this violence and trouble unnecessary; but one of the soldiers pierced his side with a spear, whose point appears to have penetrated into the pericardium, or membrane surrounding the heart; for St. John, who says he was an eye-witness of this, declares that there issued from the wound a mixture of blood and water. This wound, had he not been dead, must necessarily have been fatal. This circumstance St. John saw, and has solemnly recorded and attested.⁴

¹ *Corpora eorum qui capite damnantur cognatis ipsorum neganda non sunt: et id observasse etiam D. Aug. lib. x. de vitâ suâ, scribit. Hodie autem eorum, in quibus animadvertitur, corpora non aliter sepeliuntur, quam si fuerit petatum et permissum; nonnunquam non permittitur, maxime majestatis causâ damnatorum. l. i. ff. de cadaver. Punit.*

² *Corpora animadversorum quibuslibet potentibus ad sepulturam danda sunt. l. iiii. eod.*

³ See an instance, incidentally mentioned by Josehus. *De Bell. Jud. lib. iv. c. 5. § 2.*

⁴ *And he that saw it bare record, and his record is true; and he knoweth that he said true, that ye might believe. John xix. 35.*

CHAPTER IV.

ON THE JEWISH AND ROMAN MODES OF COMPUTING TIME,
MENTIONED IN THE SCRIPTURES.

I. *Days*. — II. *Hours*. — *Watches of the Night*. — III. *Weeks*. — IV. *Months*. — V. *Years, Civil, Ecclesiastical and Natural*. — *Jewish Calendar*. — VI. *Parts of time taken for the whole*. — VII. *Remarkable Eras of the Jews*.

IT is well known that, in the perusal of antient authors, we are liable to fall into many serious mistakes, if we consider their modes of computing time to be precisely the same as ours: and hence it becomes necessary that we observe their different notations of time, and carefully adjust them to our own. This remark is particularly applicable to the sacred writers, whom sceptics and infidels have charged with various contradictions and inconsistencies, which fall to the ground as soon as the various computations of time are considered and adapted to our own standard. The knowledge of the different divisions of time mentioned in the Scriptures will elucidate the meaning of a multitude of passages with regard to seasons, circumstances, and ceremonies.

I. The Hebrews computed their DAYS from evening to evening, according to the command of Moses. (Lev. xxiii. 32.) It is remarkable that the evening or natural night precedes the morning or natural day in the account of the creation (Gen. i. 5. &c.): whence the prophet Daniel employs the compound term *evening-morning* (Dan. viii. 14. marginal reading) to denote a civil day in his celebrated Chronological prophecy of the 2300 days; and the same portion of time is termed in Greek *νοχθημερον*.

The Romans had two different computations of their days, and two denominations for them. The one they called the *civil*; the other the *natural* day; the first was the same as ours: the second, which was the vulgar computation, began at six in the morning, and ended at six in the evening.² The *civil* day of the Jews varied in length according to the seasons of the year: the longest day in the Holy Land is only fourteen hours and twelve minutes of our time; and the shortest day, nine hours and forty-eight minutes. This

¹ Tacitus, speaking of the antient Germans, takes notice that their account of time differs from that of the Romans; and that instead of days they reckoned the number of nights. *De Mor. Germ.* c. xi. So also did the antient Gauls (*Cæsar de Bell. Gall.* lib. vi. c. xvii.); and vestiges of this antient practice still remain in our own country. We say last, *Sunday se'night*, or *this day fortnight*. The practice of computing time by nights, instead of days, obtains among the Masboos, an inland nation, dwelling in the interior of South Africa. *Travels by the Rev. John Campbell*, vol. i. p. 182. (London, 1822. 8vo.)

² Pliny, *Hist. Nat.* lib. ii. c. lxxv.; *Senecius de Die Natali*, c. xlii.; *Macrobius Saturnal.* lib. iii. c. iii. See also Dr. *Dissertation on several passages of Scripture*, p. 126.; and Dr. Macknight's *Harmon.* vol. i. *Preface*, Dis. v.

portion of time was at first divided into *four* parts (Nehem. ix. 3.); which, though varying in length according to the seasons, could nevertheless be easily discerned from the position or appearance of the sun in the horizon. Afterwards the civil day was divided into twelve hours, which were measured either from the position of the sun, or from dials constructed for that purpose.

II. These HOURS were equal to each other, but unequal with respect to the different seasons of the year; thus the twelve hours of the longest day, in summer were much longer than those of the shortest day in winter. The *earliest* mention of hours in the sacred writings occurs in the prophecy of Daniel (iii. 6. 15. v. 5.): and as the Chaldæans, according to Herodotus¹, were the inventors of this division of time, it is probable that the Jews derived their hours from them. It is evident that the division of hours was unknown in the time of Moses (compare Gen. xv. 12. xviii. 1. xix. 1. 15. 23.); nor is any notice taken of them by the most antient of the profane poets, who mentions only the *morning* or *evening* or *mid-day*.² With Homer correspond the notations of time referred to by the royal psalmist, who mentions them as the times of prayer. (Psal. lv. 17.) The Jews computed their hours of the civil day from six in the morning till six in the evening: thus their *first* hour corresponded with our *seven* o'clock; their *second* to our *eight*; their *third* to our *nine*, &c. The knowledge of this will illustrate several passages of Scripture, particularly Matt. xx. where the third, sixth, ninth, and eleventh hours (ver. 3. 5. 6. 9.) respectively denote nine o'clock in the morning, twelve at noon, three and five in the afternoon; see also Acts ii. 15. iii. 1. x. 9. 30. The first three hours (from six to nine) were their morning: during the *third* hour, from eight to nine, their morning sacrifice was prepared, offered up, and laid on the altar precisely at nine o'clock; this interval they termed the *preparation*. (Παρεσκευη, John xix. 14. where the "preparation of the passover" fixes the precise time when our Saviour was before Pilate.) Josephus confirms the narrative of the evangelists.³

The night was originally divided into three parts or watches (Psal. lxxiii. 6. xc. 4.), although the division of twelve hours like those of the day afterwards obtained. The *first* or beginning of watches is mentioned in Lam. ii. 19.; the *middle-watch* in Jud. iii. 19.; and the *morning-watch* in Exod. xiv. 24. It is probable that these watches varied in length according to the seasons of the year: consequently those, who had a long and inclement winter watch to encounter, would ardently desire the approach of morning light to

¹ Lib. ii. c. cix.

² ———— 'Ἠώς, ἡ δειλὴ, ἡ μεσσην ἡμῶν. Hom. II. lib. xxi. 3.

³ During the siege of Jerusalem, the Jewish historian relates that the priests were not interrupted in the discharge of their sacred functions, but continued twice a day, in the morning, and at the ninth hour (or at three o'clock in the afternoon), to offer up sacrifices at the altar. The Jews rarely, if ever, ate or drank till after the hour of prayer (Acts x. 36), and on sabbath days not till the sixth hour (twelve at noon, Josephus, de vita jud. ii. 2); which circumstance well explains the apostle Peter's defence of those on whom the Holy Spirit had miraculously descended on the day of Pentecost. (Acts ii. 15.)

terminate their watch. This circumstance would beautifully illustrate the fervour of the psalmist's devotion (Psal. cxxx. 6.), as well as serve to explain other passages of the Old Testament.¹ These three watches are also mentioned by various profane writers.²

During the time of our Saviour, the night was divided into four watches, a fourth watch having been introduced among the Jews from the Romans, who derived it from the Greeks. The second and third watches are mentioned in Luke xii. 38.; the fourth in Matt. xiv. 25.; and the four are all distinctly mentioned in Mark xiii. 35. *Watch therefore, for ye know not when the master of the house cometh; at EVEN (Ὠψς, or the late watch), or at MIDNIGHT (μεσονυκτιου), or at the COCK-CROWING (αλεκτοροφωνιας), or in the MORNING (πρωι, the early watch).* Here, the *first* watch was at even, and continued from six till nine; the *second* commenced at nine and ended at twelve, or midnight; the *third* watch, called by the Romans *gallicinium*, lasted from twelve to three; and the *morning watch* closed at six. A double cock-crowing indeed is noticed by St. Mark, (xiv. 30.) where the other evangelists mention only one. (Matt. xxvi. 34. Luke xxii. 34. John xiii. 38.) But this may be easily reconciled. The Jewish doctors divided the cock-crowing into the first, second, and third; the heathen nations in general observed only two. As the cock crew the *second* time after Peter's third denial, it was this second or principal cock-crowing (for the Jews seem in many respects to have accommodated themselves to the Roman computation of time), to which the evangelists Matthew, Luke, and John refer. Or, perhaps, the second cock-crowing of the Jews might coincide with the second of the Romans.³

It may be proper to remark that the word *hour* is frequently used with great latitude in the Scriptures, and sometimes implies the space of time occupied by a whole watch. (Matt. xxv. 13. xxvi. 40. Mark xiv. 37. Luke xxii. 59. Rev. iii. 3.) Perhaps the third *hour* mentioned in Acts xxiii. 23. was a military *watch* of the night.⁴

The Jews reckoned two evenings: the former began at the ninth hour of the natural day, or three o'clock in the afternoon; and the latter at the eleventh hour. Thus the paschal lamb was required to be sacrificed *between the evenings* (Exod. xii. 6. Lev. xxiii. 4.); which Josephus tells us, the Jews in his time did, from the ninth hour until the eleventh.⁵ Hence the law, requiring the paschal

¹ Thus the 134th psalm gives us an instance of the temple watch: the whole psalm is nothing more than the alternate cry of two different divisions of the watch. The first watch addresses the second (v. 1, 2.), reminding them of their duty; and the second answers (v. 3.) by a solemn blessing. The address and the answer seem both to be a set form, which each individual proclaimed or sung aloud, at stated intervals, to notify the time of the night. Bishop Lowth's *Isaiah*, vol. ii. p. 357.

² See Homer, *Iliad*, lib. x. v. 252, 253. Livy, lib. vii. c. xxxv. and Xenophon, *Anab.* lib. iv. p. 250. (edit. Hutchinson.)

³ Lightfoot *Hor. Heb. on John xiii. 35.* (Works, vol. ii. p. 597.) Grotius and Whitty on Matt. xxvi. 34. Dr. Hales's *Antiquities and Chronology*, vol. i. p. 112. By which writers various passages of classical authors are cited.

⁴ Fragments annexed to Calmet's *Dictionnaire*, No. cclxiii. p. 164.

⁵ De Bell. Jud. lib. vi. c. ix. §3.

lamb to be sacrificed "at even, at the going down of the sun," (Deut. xvi. 6.) expressed both evenings. It is truly remarkable that "Christ our passover," the antitype of the paschal lamb, "expired at the ninth hour, and was taken down from the cross at the eleventh hour, or sunset."¹

III. Seven nights and days constituted a WEEK; six of these were appropriated to labour and the ordinary purposes of life, and the seventh day or sabbath was appointed by God to be observed as a day of rest, because that on it he had rested from all his work which God had created and made. (Gen. ii. 3.) This division of time was universally observed by the descendants of Noah; and, being lost during the bondage of the Israelites in Egypt, was revived and enacted by Moses agreeably to the divine command. This is evident from the word *Sabbat* or *Sabbata*, denoting a week among the Syrians, Arabians, Christian Persians, and Ethiopians, as in the following antient Syriac Calendar, expressed in Hebrew characters²:

ח'ד-שבחא	-	One of the Sabbath, or Week	-	Sunday.
ח'ד-שבחא	-	Two of the Sabbath	-	Monday.
ח'ל-שבחא	-	Three of the Sabbath	-	Tuesday.
ארבעא-שבחא	-	Four of the Sabbath	-	Wednesday.
ח'משה-שבחא	-	Five of the Sabbath	-	Thursday.
ער-שבת	-	Eve of the Sabbath	-	Friday.
שבתא	-	The Sabbath	-	Saturday.

The high antiquity of this calendar is evinced by the use of the cardinal numbers, *one, two, three, &c.* instead of the ordinals, *first, second, third, &c.* following the Hebrew idiom; as in the account of the creation, where we read in the original, "*one day — two day — three day,*" &c.; where the Septuagint retains it in the first, calling it, ἡμέρα μία. It is remarkable that all the evangelists follow the Syriac calendar, both in the word *σαββάτα*, used for "*a week,*" and also in retaining the cardinal number *μία σαββάτων*, "*one of the week,*" to express the day of the resurrection. (Matt. xxviii. 1. Mark xvi. 2. Luke xxiv. 1. John xx. 1.) Afterwards Mark adopts the usual phrase, *πρωτὴ σαββάτη*, "*the first of the week*" (Mark xvi. 9.), where he uses the singular *σαββάτον* for *a week*; and so does Luke, as *Νηστεύω δις τὴ σαββάτῃ*, "*I fast twice in the week.*" (Luke xviii. 12.)

The Syriac name for Friday, or the sixth day of the week, is also adopted by Mark, who renders it *προσαββάτον*, "*sabbath-even,*" (xv. 42.) corresponding to *παρασκευή*, "*preparation-day.*" (Matt. xxvii. 62. Mark xv. 42. Luke xxiii. 54. John xix. 31.) And Josephus also conforms to this usage, except that he uses *σαββάτα* in the singular sense, for the *sabbath-day*, in his account of a decree of Augustus, exempting the Jews of Asia and Cyrene from secular services, *ἐν σαββάτῳ καὶ τῇ πρὸ ταύτης παρασκευῇ, ἀπὸ τῆς*

¹ Dr. Hales's *Analysis of Chronology*, vol. ii. p. 114. In the two following pages, he illustrates several apparently chronological contradictions between the evangelists with equal felicity and learning.

² This calendar is taken from Bp. Marsh's Translation of Michaelis's Introduction to the New Testament, vol. ii. p. 136.

ὥρας ἐννατῆς. "On the sabbath-day, or on the preparation-day before it, from the ninth hour." ¹ The first three evangelists also use the plural σαββατα, to denote the sabbath-day. (Matt. xii. 5—11. Mark i. 21. and ii. 23. Luke iv. 16. &c.) Whereas John, to avoid ambiguity, appropriates the singular σαββατον to the sabbath-day, and the plural σαββατα to the week. (John v. 9—16. vii. 22. &c. xx. 1.)

The second sabbath after the first (Luke vi. 1.), δευτερον rather the second prime sabbath, concerning which commentators have been so greatly divided, appears to have been the first sabbath after the second day of unleavened bread or of the passover week. Besides weeks of days, the Jews had weeks of seven years (the seventh of which was called the sabbatical year); and weeks of seven times seven years, or of forty-nine years, which were reckoned from one jubilee to another. The fiftieth or jubilee year was celebrated with singular festivity and solemnity. ²

IV. The Hebrews had their MONTHS, which like those of all other antient nations were lunar ones, being measured by the revolutions of the moon, and consisting alternately of twenty-nine and thirty days. While the Jews continued in the land of Canaan, the commencement of their months and years was not settled by any astronomical rules or calculations, but by the phasis or actual appearance of the moon. As soon as they saw the moon, they began the month. Persons were therefore appointed to watch on the tops of the mountains for the first appearance of the moon after the change: as soon as they saw it, they informed the Sanhedrin, and public notice was given, first, by the sounding of trumpets, to which there is an allusion in Psal. lxxxii. 3.; and afterwards lighting beacons throughout the land; though (as the mishnical rabbins tell us) after they had frequently been deceived by the Samaritans who kindled false fires, they used to announce the appearance by sending messengers. As however they had no months longer than thirty days, if they did not see the new moon the night following the thirtieth day, they concluded that the appearance was obstructed by the clouds; and, without watching any longer, made the next day the first day of the following month. But, on the dispersion of the Jews throughout all nations, having no opportunities of being informed of the appearance of the new moons, they were obliged to have recourse to astronomical calculations and cycles, in order to fix the beginning of their months and years. At first, they employed a cycle of eighty-four years: but this being discovered to be defective, they had recourse to the Metonic cycle of nineteen years; which was established by the authority of rabbi Hillel, prince of the Sanhedrin, about the year 360 of the Christian era. This they use, and say that it is to be observed until the coming of the Messiah. In the compass of this

¹ Antiq. 16, 7, 2.

² Dr. Hales's Analysis of Chronology, vol. i. p. 120.

cycle there are twelve common years, consisting of twelve months, and seven intercalary years, consisting of thirteen months.¹

Originally, the Jews had no particular names for their months, but called them the *first*, *second*, &c. Thus the Deluge began in the *second* month, and came to its height in the *seventh* month, at the end of 150 days (Gen. vii. 11—24. viii. 4.) and decreased until the *tenth* month, when the tops of the mountains were seen. (viii. 5.) Afterwards they acquired distinct names, thus, Moses named the *first* month of the year *Abib* (Exod. xii. 2. xiii. 4.); signifying *green*, from the green ears of corn at that season; for it began about the vernal equinox. The second month was named *Zif*, signifying in Chaldee *glory* or *splendour*; in which the foundation of Solomon's temple was laid. (1 Kings vi. 1.) The seventh month was styled *Ethanim*, which is interpreted *harvests* by the Syriac version. (1 Kings viii. 2.) The eighth month, *Bul*; from *the fall* of the leaf. (1 Kings vi. 38.) But concerning the origin of these appellations critics are by no means agreed: on their return from the Babylonish captivity, they introduced the names which they had found among the Chaldæans and Persians. Thus, the first month was also called *Nisan*, signifying *flight*; because in that month the Israelites were thrust out of Egypt (Exod. xii. 39.); the third month, *Sivan*, signifying *a bramble* (Esth. iii. 7. Nehem. ii. 1.); and the sixth month *Eul*, signifying *mourning*, probably because it was the time of preparation for the great day of atonement, on the tenth day of the seventh month. (Neh. vi. 15.) The ninth month was called *Chisleu*, signifying *chilled*; when the cold weather sets in, and fires are lighted. (Zech. vii. 1. Jer. xxxvi. 22.) The tenth month was called *Tebeth*, signifying *miry*. (Esth. ii. 16.) The eleventh, *Shebet*, signifying *a staff* or *a sceptre*. (Zech. i. 7.) And the twelfth *Adar*, signifying *a magnificent mantle*, probably from the profusion of flowers and plants with which the earth then begins to be clothed in warm climates. (Ezra vi. 15. Esther iii. 7.) It is said to be a Syriac term. (2 Mac. xvi. 36.)²

V. The Jews had four sorts of YEARS,—one for plants, another for beasts, a third for sacred purposes, and the fourth was civil and common to all the inhabitants of Palestine.

1. The *year of plants* was reckoned from the month corresponding with our January; because they paid tithe-fruits of the trees which budded at that time.

2. The second year was that of *Beasts*; for when they tithed their lambs, the owner drove all the flock under a rock, and they marked the tenth, which was given to the Levites. They could

¹ Dr. A. Clarke, at the end of his commentary on Deuteronomy, has given six elaborately constructed tables explanatory of the Jewish calendar. Mr. Allen has also given six tables; which, though less extensive than the preceding, are well calculated to afford a clear idea of the constructions and variations of the Jewish calendar. See Modern Judaism, p. 369—377.

Analysis of Chronology, vol. i. p. 127.

however, only take those which fell in the year, and *this* year began at the month Elul, or the beginning of our August.

But the two years which are the most known are the *Civil* and *Ecclesiastical Years*.

3. The *Civil Year* commenced on the fifteenth of our September, because it was an old tradition that the world was created at that time. From this year the Jews computed their jubilees, dated all contracts, and noted the birth of children, and the reign of kings. It is said also that this month was appointed for making war; because, the great heats being passed, they then went into the field. In 2 Sam. xi. 1, we read that *David sent Joab and his servants with him, and all Israel, to destroy the Ammonites, at the return of the year* (marginal rendering), *at the time when kings go forth to battle*, that is, in the month of September. The annexed table exhibits the months of the Jewish civil year with the corresponding months of our computation :

1. Tisri	-	corresponds with part of	-	September and October.
2. Marchesvan	-	-	-	October and November.
3. Chisleu or Kislev	-	-	-	November and December.
4. Thebet	-	-	-	December and January.
5. Sebat	-	-	-	January and February.
6. Adar	-	-	-	February and March.
7. Nisan or Abib	-	-	-	March and April.
8. Jyar or Zif	-	-	-	April and May.
9. Sivan	-	-	-	May and June.
10. Tammuz	-	-	-	June and July.
11. Ab	-	-	-	July and August.
12. Elul	-	-	-	August and September.

Some of the preceding names are still in use in Persia.

4. The *Ecclesiastical* or *Sacred Year* began in March, or on the first day of the month Nisan, because at that time they departed out of Egypt. From that month they computed their feasts, and the prophets also occasionally dated their oracles and visions. Thus Zechariah (vii. 1.) says that *the word of the Lord came unto him in the fourth day of the ninth month*, even in Chisleu; which answers to our November, whence it is evident that he adopted the ecclesiastical year, which commenced in March. The month Nisan is noted in the Old Testament for the *overflowings of Jordan* (Josh. iii. 15. 1 Chron. xii. 15.); which were common at that season, the river being swollen by the melted snows that poured in torrents from Mount Lebanon. The following table presents the months of the Jewish ecclesiastical year, compared with our months :

1. Nisan or Abib	-	-	-	-	} answers to part of March and April.
(Neh. ii. 1. Esth. iii. 7.)	-	-	-	-	
2. Jyar or Zif	-	-	-	-	April and May.
3. Sivan (Esth. viii. 9.)	-	-	-	-	May and June.
4. Tammuz	-	-	-	-	June and July.
5. Ab	-	-	-	-	July and August.
6. Elul (Neh. vi. 15.)	-	-	-	-	August and September.
7. Tisri	-	-	-	-	September and October.
8. Marchesvan	-	-	-	-	October and November.

- | | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|---|
| 9. Kislen or Chislen | - | } answers to part of November and December. |
| (Zech. vii. 1. Neh. i. 1.) | - | |
| 10. Thebet | - | - December and January. |
| 11. Sebat (Zech i. 7.) | - | - January and February. |
| 12. Adar (Ezr. vi. 15. Esth. iii. 7.) | - | - February and March. |

The Jewish months being regulated by the phases or appearances of the moon, their years were consequently lunar years, consisting of twelve lunations, or 354 days and 8 hours; but as the Jewish festivals were held not only on certain fixed days of the month, but also at certain seasons of the year, consequently great confusion would, in process of time, arise by this method of calculating: the *spring* month sometimes falling in the middle of *winter*, it became necessary to accommodate the lunar to solar years, in order that their months, and consequently their festivals, might always fall at the same season. For this purpose, the Jews added a whole month to the year, as often as it was necessary; which occurred commonly once in three years, and sometimes once in two years. This intercalary month was added at the end of the ecclesiastical year after the month Adar, and was therefore called Ve-Adar or the second Adar.

As agriculture constituted the principal employment of the Jews, they also divided their *natural* year into seasons with reference to their rural work. These, we have seen, were six in number, each of two months' duration, including one whole month and the halves of two others. See an account of them in pp. 27—33. of this volume, under the *Climate and Seasons of the Holy Land*.

To this natural division of the year there are several allusions in the sacred writings: as in Jer. xxxvi. 22. where king Jehoiakim is said to be sitting in the winter-house in the ninth sacred month Chislen, the latter half of which fell in the winter or rainy season; so, in Ezra x. 13. it is said that the congregation of the people which had been convened on the twentieth day of the same month, were not able to stand out in the open air, because it was "a time of much rain." The knowledge of this mode of dividing the year illustrates John x. 22, 23. and accounts for our Lord's walking in the portico of the temple at the feast of dedication, which was celebrated towards the close of the same month.

Further, the Jews divided their solar year into four parts, called by them *Tekuphat* (that is, *revolutions of time*), or quarters, which they distinguished by the names of the months with which they commenced: thus, the vernal equinox is termed *Tekuphat Nisan*; the autumnal equinox, *Tekuphat Tisri*; the winter solstice, *Tekuphat Tebeth*; and the summer solstice, *Tekuphat Thammar*. Some critics have conjectured that our Lord refers to the intervening space of four months, from the conclusion of seed-time to the commencement of the harvest, in John iv. 35.

The following CALENDAR will present to the reader a view of the ISRI YEAR. It is abridged from *Other Land's Apparatus*

*Biblicus*¹, with additions from the Calendar printed by Calmet, at the end of his Dictionary of the Bible. In it are inserted the festivals and fasts celebrated by the Jews; including not only those enacted by the law of Moses, and which are described in a subsequent part of this work, but likewise those which were not established until after the destruction of the temple, and those which are observed by the Jews to the present time. The lessons also are introduced which they were accustomed to read in the synagogues. — Those days, on which no festival or fast was celebrated, are designedly omitted.

1. TISRI, FORMERLY CALLED ETHANIM.

The FIRST month of the civil year, the SEVENTH month of the ecclesiastical year; it has thirty days, and corresponds with part of our September and October.

1. Rosch Haschana, the beginning of the civil year. The feast of trumpets commanded in Leviticus. (Lev. xxiii. 24, 25. Num. xxix. 1. Jer. xli. 1.)

3. The fast of Gedaliah; because Gedaliah, the son of Ahikam, and all the Jews that were with him, were slain at Mizpah. (2 Kings xxv. 25.) This is the fast that Zechariah calls the fast of the seventh month. (Zech. viii. 19.)

5. A fast. Twenty Israelites were killed: Rabbi Akiba, the son of Joseph, was loaded with irons and died in prison.

7. A fast, appointed on account of the golden calf. (Exod. xxxii. 6, 7, 8.)

The lessons for this day were Deut. xxvi. 1. to Deut. xxix. and the lxth chapter of Isaiah.

10. The fast of expiation. (Lev. xxiii. 27.)

14. The lessons for this day were from Deut. xxix. 10. to Deut. xxxi. 1. when the year had most Sabbaths; and when fewest, the book was finished on this day. And from Isa. lxi. 1. to Isa. lxiii. 10.

15. The feast of tabernacles. (Lev. xxiii. 34, 35.) It lasted seven days, exclusive of the octave or eighth day.

21. Hosanna Rabba, the seventh day of the feast of tabernacles; or the feast of branches.

The lessons for this day were from Gen. i. 1. to Gen. vi. 9. and from Isa. xlii. 5. to Isa. xliii. 11.

22. The octave of the feast of tabernacles. (Lev. xxiii. 36.)

23. The solemnity of the law, in memory of the covenant and death of Moses. On this day Solomon's dedication was finished. (1 Kings viii. 65.)

28. The lessons were from Gen. vi. 9. to Gen. xii. 1. and from Isa. liv. 1. to Isa. lv. 5.

30. On this day the lessons were from Gen. xii. 1. to Gen. xviii. 1. and from Isa. xl. 27. to Isa. xli. 17. (This day is the fast held in commemoration of the murder of Gedaliah, whom Nebuchadnezzar made governor of Judæa, after he had destroyed Jerusalem, according to Dr. Prideaux.)²

2. MARCHESVAN.

The SECOND month of the civil year, the EIGHTH month of the ecclesiastical year; it has only twenty-nine days, and corresponds with part of our October and November.

1. The new moon (Calmet observes, in the Jewish Calendar, at the end of his Dictionary of the Bible, that the Jews always made two new moons for every month; the

¹ Apparatus Biblicus, vol. i. p. 155. et seq.
² tion, part i. book i. under the year 538.

first of which was the last day of the preceding month; and the first day of the month was the second new moon of that month.)

3. The lessons for this day were from Gen. xviii. 1. to Gen. xxiii. 1. and from 2 Sam. iv. 1. to 2 Sam. iv. 38.

6. A fast, appointed on account of Zedekiah's having his eyes put out by the command of Nebuchadnezzar, after he had seen his children slain before his face. (2 Kings xxv. 7. Jer. lii. 10.)

8. The lessons for this day were from Gen. xxiii. 1. to Gen. xxv. 19. and from 1 Sam. i. 1. to 1 Sam. i. 32.

15. The lessons for this day were from Gen. xxv. 19. to Gen. xxviii. 10. and from Mal. i. 1. to Mal. ii. 8.

19. Fast to expiate the crimes committed on account of the feast of tabernacles.

23. A fast in memory of the stones of the altar which the Gentiles profaned, 1 Mac. iv. 46.

The lessons for this day were from Gen. xxviii. 10. to Gen. xxxii. 3. and from Hos. xi. 7. to Hos. xiv. 3.

25. A fast in memory of some places which the Cuthæans seized, and were recovered by the Israelites after the captivity.

In this month the Jews prayed for the rain, which they call Jore, or the autumnal rain, which was very seasonable for their seed. Genebrard pretends that they did not ask for this rain till the next month. Perhaps there might be no stated time for asking for it; that might depend upon their want of it. The Jews say it was in October; and it was called in general the autumnal rain, which season lasted three months.

3. CHISLEU, OR CASLEU.

The THIRD month of the civil year, the NINTH month of the ecclesiastical year; it has thirty days, and corresponds with part of our November and December.

1. The new moon.

2. Prayers for rain.

3. A feast in memory of the idols, which the Asmonæans threw out of the temple.

6. The lessons for this day were, from Gen. xxxii. 3. to Gen. xxxvii. 1. and the whole book of Obadiah, or from Hos. xii. 12. to the end of the book.

7. A fast, instituted because king Jehoiakim burned the prophecy of Jeremiah, which Baruch had written. (Jer. xxxvi. 23.) 'Tis fast Dr. Prideaux places on the 29th of this month. But Calmet places it on the sixth of this month, and makes the seventh of this month a festival, in memory of the death of Herod the Great, the son of Antipater. Scaliger will have it that it was instituted on account of Zedekiah's having his eyes put out, after his children had been slain in his sight.

10. The lessons for this day were from Gen. xxxvii. 1. to Gen. xli. 1. and from Amos ii. 6. to Amos iii. 9.

17. The lessons for this day were from Gen. xli. 1. to Gen. xlv. 18. and from 1 Sam. iii. 15. to the end of the chapter.

25. The dedication of the temple. This feast lasted eight days.

The lessons for this day were from Gen. xlv. 18. to Gen. xlvii. 27. and from Ezek. xxxvii. 15. to the end of the chapter.

THEBETH, OR TEBETH.

The FOURTH month of the civil year, the TENTH month of the ecclesiastical year; it has but twenty-nine days, and corresponds with part of our December and January.

1. The new moon.

3. The lessons for this day were from Gen. xlvii. 27. to the end of the book, and the thirteen first verses of the second chapter of the first book of Samuel.

8. A fast on account of the translation of the Bible into Greek. Philo, in his *Life of Moses*, says, that the Jews of Alexandria celebrated a feast on this day, in memory of the 72 Interpreters. But the Jews at present abominate that version.

9. A fast, the reason of which is not mentioned by the Rabbins.

10. A fast on account of the siege which the king of Babylon laid to Jerusalem. (2 Kings xxv.)

11. The lessons were the five first chapters of Exodus, and with them from Isa. xxvii. 6. to Isa. xxvii. 14. or else from Jer. i. 1. to Jer. ii. 4.

17. The lessons for this day were from Exod. vi. 1. to Exod. x. 1. and from Ezek. xxviii. 25. to Ezek. xxx. 1.

25. The lessons for this day were from Exod. x. 1. to Exod. xiii. 17. and from Jer. xlv. 13. to the end of the chapter.

28. A fast in memory of Rabbi Simeon's having driven the Sadducees out of the Sanhedrin, where they had the upper hand in the time of Alexander Jannæus; and his having introduced the Pharisees in their room.

5. SEBAT, SHEVET, OR SHEBAT.

The FIFTH month of the civil year, the ELEVENTH month of the ecclesiastical year; it has thirty days, and corresponds with part of our January and February.

1. The new moon. In this month the Jews began to reckon the years of the trees which they planted, whose fruit was not to be eaten till after they had been planted three years. Calmet fixes the beginning of this year of trees to the 15th day of this month.

2. A rejoicing for the death of Alexander Jannæus.

3. Now is read from Exod. xiii. 17. to Exod. xviii. 1. and from Judg. iv. 4. to Judg. vi. 1.

A fast in memory of the death of the elders who succeeded Joshua. Judg. ii. 10:

8. A fast, because on this day died the Just men who lived in the days of Joshua. (Judg. ii. 10.)

10. The lessons were from Exod. xviii. 1. to Exod. xxi. 1. and the whole sixth chapter of Isaiah.

17. The lessons for this day were from Exod. xxi. 1. to Exod. xxv. 1. and Jer. xxxiv. from v. 8. to the end of the chapter.

23. A fast in memory of the insurrection of the other tribes against that of Benjamin, on account of the death of the Levite's wife. (Judg. xx.)

26. Now is read, from Exod. xxv. 1. to Exod. xxvii. 20. and from 1 Sam. v. 12. to 1 Sam. vi. 14.

29. Now is read, from Exod. xxvii. 20. to Exod. xxx. 11. and Ezek. xliii. from the 10th verse to the end of the chapter.

6. ADAR.

The SIXTH month of the civil year, the TWELFTH month of the ecclesiastical year; it has only twenty-nine days, and corresponds with part of our February and March.

1. The new moon. Genebrard places the first fruits on this day.

3. The lessons for this day were from Exod. xxx. 11. to Exod. xxiv. 1. and from 1 Sam. xviii. 1. to 1 Sam. xviii. 39.

7. A fast on account of the death of Moses, the lawgiver of the Jews. (Deut. xxxiv. 5, 6.)

9. A fast. The schools of Schammai and Hillel began to be divided on this day.

12. The lessons are from Exod. xxxv. 1. to Exod. xxxviii. 21. and from 1 Sam. xvii. 13. to 1 Sam. xvii. 26. (This day is also a feast in memory of the death of Hollianus and Pipus, two proselytes and brothers, who chose rather to die than violate the law.)¹

13. A festival on account of the death of Nicanor. (2 Mac. xv. 37.) Gen. places the fast of Esther (Est. iv. 16.) on this day.

14. Purim the first, or the Little Feast of Lots.

15. Purim the second, or the Great Feast of Lots. (Est. ix. v. 18.) An account of these festivals is given in a subsequent part of this volume.

The dedication of the temple of Zorobabel (Ez. vi. 16.) was made in this month, but the day is not known.

18. Now is read from Exod. xxxviii. 21. to the end of the book; and from 1 Sam. vii. 50. to 1 Sam. viii. 21.

20. A fast in memory of the rain obtained of God, by one Onias Hammagel, in a time of great dearth.

25. The lessons were the five first chapters of Leviticus, and from Isa. xliii. 21. to Isa. xlv. 24.

28. A feast. The Grecian edict, which forbade the Jews the use of circumcision, recalled.

The intercalary month was inserted here, when the year was to consist of thirteen lunar months; and the month so added was called Ve-Adar, that is, the second Adar.

7. ABIB, OR NISAN.

The SEVENTH month of the civil year, the FIRST month of the ecclesiastical year: it has thirty days, and corresponds with part of our March and April.

1. The new moon. A fast on account of the death of the children of Aaron. (Levit. x. 1.)

3. The lessons were from Lev. vi. 1. to Lev. ix. 1. and from Jer. vii. 21. to Jer. viii. 4.

10. A fast on account of the death of Miriam. (Numb. xx. 1.) On this day every one provided himself with a lamb against the fourteenth.

12. The lessons were from Lev. ix. 1. to Lev. xii. 1. and from 2 Sam. vi. 1. to 2 Sam. vii. 17.

14. The passover. The Jews now burn all the leavened bread they have in their houses.

15. The feast of unleavened bread.

16. The morrow after the feast of the passover. On this second day the Jews offered up to God the Omer, that is, the sheaf of the new barley harvest, which was cut and carried into the temple with much ceremony. The fifty days of Pentecost were reckoned from this day.

19. The lessons were from Lev. xii. 1. to Lev. xiv. 1. and from 2 Sam. iv. 42. to 2 Sam. v. 20.

21. The last day of the feast of unleavened bread.

26. A fast for the death of Joshua. (Josh. xxiv. 29.)

27. The lessons were from Lev. xiv. 1. to Lev. xvi. 1. and 2 Sam. vii. 3. to the end of the chapter.

29. Genebraud observes, that the Jews in this month prayed for the spring rain, or the latter rain, which was seasonable for their harvest. (Deut. xi. 14. Zech. x. 1.) This is that rain which the Hebrews call Malkosh, that is, the rain which prepares for the harvest, and makes the grain swell.

8. JYAR, OR ZIF.

The EIGHTH month of the civil year, the SECOND month of the ecclesiastical year; it has only twenty-nine days, and corresponds with part of our April and May,

1. The new moon.

3. The lessons were from Lev. xvi. 1. to Lev. xix. 1. and 17 verses of Ezek. xxii.

10. A fast for the death of Eli, and the taking of the ark. (1 Sam. iv. 18.)

11. The lessons were from Lev. xix. 1. to Lev. xx. 1. and from Amos ix. 7. to the end; or else from Ezek. xx. 2. to Ezek. xxi. 21.

14. The second passover (Numb. ix. 10, 11.) in favour of those who could not, or were not summoned to celebrate the passover the last month.

19. The lessons were from Lev. xxi. 1. to Lev. xxv. 1. and from Ezek. iv. 15. to the end of the chapter.

23. A fast. Simon takes Gaza, according to Scaliger.

28. A fast for the death of Samuel, who was lamented by all the people. (1 Sam. xxv. 1.)

9. SIVAN, OR SIUVAN.

The NINTH month of the civil year, the THIRD month of the ecclesiastical year; it has thirty days, and corresponds with part of our May and June.

1. The new moon.

3. The lessons were from Lev. xxvi. 3. to the end of the book, and from Jer. xvi. 19. to Jer. xvii. 15.

6. The Feast of Pentecost, which is also called the feast of weeks, because it fell just seven weeks after the morrow after the feast of the passover.

10. Numbers is begun and read to ch. iv. v. 21. and from Hosea ii. 10. to Hosea ii. 21.

13. A feast in memory of the victories of the Maccabees over the Bathsurites, 1 Mac. v. 52.

17. A feast for the taking of Cæsarea by the Asmonæans.

19. The lessons were from Num. iv. 21. to Num. viii. 1. and from Judg ii. 2. to the end of the chapter.

23. A fast, because Jeroboam forbade the ten tribes, which obeyed him, to carry up their first fruits to Jerusalem. (1 Kings xii. 27.)

25. A fast, on account of the murder of the Rabbins, Simon the son of Gamaliel, Ishmael the son of Elisha, and Ananias the Sagan, that is, the high priest's vicar.

26. The lessons were from Num. viii. to Num. xiii. 1. and from Zech. ii. 10. to Zech. iv. 8.

27. A fast, because Rabbi Hanina, the son of Tardion, was burnt, and with him the book of the law.

10. THAMMUZ OR TAMMUZ.

The TENTH month of the civil year, the FOURTH month of the ecclesiastical year; it has only twenty-nine days, and corresponds with part of our June and July.

1. The new moon.

3. The lessons were from Num. xiii. 1. to Num. xvi. 1. and the second chapter of Joshua.

10. The lessons were from Num. xvi. 1. to Num. xix. 1. and from 1 Sam. xi. 14. to 1 Sam. xii. 23.

14. A feast for the abolition of a pernicious book of the Sadducees against the oral law and tradition.

17. The fast of the fourth month, because the tables of the law were broken, the perpetual sacrifice ceased, Epistemon burned the law, and set up an idol in the temple.¹ (Exod. xxxii. 19.)

19. The lessons were from Num. xix. 1. to Num. xxii. 2. and the eleventh chapter of Judges to the 34th verse.

26. The lessons were from Num. xxii. 2. to Num. xxv. 10. and from Mic. v. 7. to Mic. vi. 9.

29. The lessons were from Num. xxv. 10. to Num. xxx. 2. and from 1 Sam. xviii. 46. to the end of the chapter.

11. AB.

The ELEVENTH month of the civil year, the FIFTH month of the ecclesiastical year; it has thirty days, and corresponds with part of our July and August.

1. The new moon. A fast on account of the death of Aaron the high-priest. (Num. xxxiii. 38.)

¹ See Prideaux's Con. p. 1. b. f. under the year 588.

3. The lessons were from Num. xxx. 2. to Num. xxxiii. 1. and from Jer. i. 1. to Jer. ii. 4.

9. The fast of the fifth month, because the temple was first burnt by the Chaldees, and afterwards by the Romans, on this day; and because God on this day declared in the time of Moses that none of those who came out of Egypt should enter into the land of promise. (Num. xiv. 29. 31.)

12. The book of Numbers is now finished; and from Jer. ii. 4. to Jer. ii. 29. is also read.

18. A fast, because in the time of Ahaz the evening lamp went out. Genebrard calls this lamp the Western Lamp.

20. Deuteronomy is begun and read from i. 1. to iii. 23. and the first chapter of Isaiah to verse 28.

21. Selden asserts that this was the day that all the wood which was wanted in the temple was brought into it; but others think that this was done in the next month.

24. A feast for the Maccabees having abolished that law of the Sadducees whereby sons and daughters inherited alike.

28. The lessons were from Deut. iii. 23. to Deut. vii. 12. and Isa. xl. to verse 27.

12. ELUL.

The TWELFTH month of the civil year, the SIXTH month of the ecclesiastical year; it has but twenty-nine days, and corresponds with part of our August and September.

1. The new moon.

3. The lessons were from Deut. vii. 12. to Deut. xi. 26. and from Isa. xlix. 14. to Isa. li. 4.

7. The dedication of the walls of Jerusalem by Nehemiah.

12. The lessons were from Deut. xi. 27. to Deut. xvi. 18. and from Isa. liv. 11. to Isa. lv. 4.

17. A fast, because of the death of the spies who brought up the evil report of the land of promise. (Num. xiv. 36. 37.)

20. The lessons were from Deut. xvi. 18. to Deut. xxi. 10. and from Isa. li. 12. to Isa. lii. 18.

21. The festival of wood offering (*xylophoria*).

22. A feast in memory of the punishment of the wicked and incorrigible Israelites.

23. The lessons were from Deut. xxi. 10. to Deut. xxvi. 1. and Isa. liv. to verse 11.

29. This is the last day of the month, on which the Jews reckoned up the beasts that had been born, the tenths of which belonged to God. They chose this day on which to do it, because the first day of the month Tisri was a festival, and therefore they could not tithe a flock on that day.

VI. In common with other nations, the Jews reckoned any *part* of a period of time for the whole, as in Exod. xvi. 35. An attention to this circumstance will explain several apparent contradictions in the sacred writings: thus, a *part* of the day is used for the whole, and *part* of the year for an entire year.

In Gen. xvii. 12. circumcision is enjoined to be performed when a child is *eight days old*, but in Lev. xii. 3. on the *eighth day*; accordingly, when Jesus Christ is said to have been circumcised *when eight days were accomplished* (Luke ii. 21.) and John the Baptist *on the eighth day* (Luke i. 59.), the last, which was the constant usage, explains the former passage. Abenezra, an eminent Jewish commentator (on Levit. xii. 3.), says, that if an infant were born in the *last hour* of the day, such hour was counted for *one whole day*. This observation critically reconciles the account of our Lord's resurrection in Matt. xxvii. 63. and Mark viii. 31. "*three days after*," with that

of his resurrection "*on the third day*," according to Matt. xvi. 21. Luke ix. 22., and according to fact; for, as our Lord was crucified on Good Friday, about the sixth hour, or noon, the remainder of that day to sunset, according to the Jewish computation, was reckoned as one day. Saturday, it is universally admitted, formed the *second* day; and as the third day began on Saturday at sun-set, and our Saviour rose about sun-rise on the following morning, that part of a day is justly reckoned for the third day: so that the interval was "*three days and three nights*," or three calendar days current, not exceeding 42 hours, and consequently not two entire days.¹ This observation also illustrates 2 Chron. x. 5. 12.; and the same mode of computing time obtains in the East, to this day.²

In like manner, in some parts of the East, the year ending on a certain day, any portion of the foregoing year is taken for a whole year; so that, supposing a child to be born in the last week of our December, it would be reckoned one year old on the first day of January, because born in the old year. If this mode of computation obtained among the Hebrews, the principle of it easily accounts for those anachronisms of single years, or parts of years taken for whole ones which occur in sacred writ: it obviates the difficulties which concern the half years of several princes of Judah and Israel, in which the latter half of the deceased king's last year has hitherto been supposed to be added to the former half of his successor's first year.

"We are told," (1 Sam. xiii. 1. marg. reading) "a son of one year was Saul in his kingdom: and two years he reigned over Israel," that is, say he was crowned in June: he was consequently *one year* old on the first of January following, though he had only reigned six months, — *the son* of a year. But, after this so following first of January he was in the second year of his reign; though, according to our computation, the first year of his reign wanted some months of being completed; in this, his *second* year, he chose three thousand military, &c. guards.

"The phrase (*απο διετης*) used to denote the age of the infants slaughtered at Bethlehem, (Matt. ii. 16.) "from two years old and

¹ Dr. Hales, to whom we are partly indebted for the above remark, has cited several passages from profane authors, who have used a similar phraseology. (Analysis of Chronology, vol. i. pp. 121, 122.) Similar illustrations from Rabbinical writers are collected by Bp. Beveridge (on the 39 articles, in Art. IV. Works, vol. ix. p. 159. note f.), by Dr. Lightfoot (Hor. Heb. in Matt. xii. 40.) and by Reland (Anti-q. Heb. lib. iv. c. 1.)

² Shortly before the philanthropic Mr. Howard arrived at Constantinople, the grand chamberlain of the city (whose province it was to supply the inhabitants with bread) had been beheaded in a summary way, in the public street, for having furnished or permitted to be furnished, loaves short of weight; and his body was exposed for a day and a half, with three light loaves beside it to denote his crime. "When Mr. Howard was told that the body had lain there for three days, he expressed his surprise that it had not bred a contagion. He learnt, however, that in point of fact it had not been left so long, as they were *not* entire days: for, it being the evening when the head was struck off, it remained the whole of the second, and was removed early in the succeeding morning, which was accounted the third; thus," (as Mr. H.'s biographer very properly remarks) "the manner of computation, in use at the time of our Saviour's crucifixion and burial, still subsists among the eastern nations." Down's Life of John Howard, Esq. pp. 437, 438. 8vo. edit.

under," is a difficulty that has been deeply felt by the learned. Some infants *two weeks* old, some *two months*, others *two years*, equally slain! Surely those born so long before could not possibly be included in the order, whose purpose was to destroy a child, certainly born within *a few months*. This is regulated at once by the idea that they were *all* of nearly equal age, being recently born; some not long *before* the close of the old year, others a little time *since* the beginning of the new year. Now, those born *before* the close of the old year, though only a few months or weeks, would be reckoned not merely *one year* old, but also in their second year, as the expression implies; and those born *since* the beginning of the year, would be well described by the phrase "*and under*," that is, under one year old; — some, *two years* old, though not born a complete twelvemonth (perhaps in fact barely six months); others, *under* one year old, yet born three, four, or five months, and therefore a trifle younger than those before described: according to the time which Herod had diligently inquired of the wise men, *in their second year and under.*"¹

VII. Besides the computation of years, the Hebrews first and the Jews afterwards, were accustomed to reckon their time from some remarkable æras or epochas. Thus, 1. From Gen. vii. 11. and viii. 13. it appears that they reckoned from the lives of the patriarchs or other illustrious persons: 2. From their departure out of Egypt, and the first institution of their polity (Exod. xix. 1. xl. 17. Numb. i. 1. ix. 1. xxxiii. 38. 1 Kings vi. 1.): 3. Afterwards, from the building of the temple (1 Kings ix. 10. 2 Chron. viii. 1.), and from the reigns of the kings of Judah and Israel: 4. Then from the commencement of the Babylonian captivity (Ezek. i. 1. xxxiii. 21. xl. 1.); and perhaps also from their return from captivity, and the dedication of the second temple. In process of time they adopted, 5. The æra of the Seleucidæ, which in the books of Maccabees is called the æra of the Greeks, and began from the year when Seleucus Nicator attained the sovereign power, that is, about 312 years before the birth of Jesus Christ. This æra the Jews continued to employ for a thousand years. They were further accustomed to reckon their years from the years when their princes began to reign. Thus, in 1 Kings xv. 1. Isa. xxxvi. 1. and Jer. i. 2, 3. we have traces of their antiently computing according to the years of their kings; and in later times, (1 Macc. xiii. 42. xiv. 27.) according to the years of the Asmonæan princes. Of this mode of computation we have vestiges in Matt. ii. 1. Luke i. 5. and iii. 1. Lastly, ever since the compilation of the Talmud, the Jews have reckoned their years from the creation of the world.²

¹ Calmet's Dictionary, 4to edit. vol. ii. Supplementary Article.

² Schulz's Compendium Archæologiæ Hebræicæ, lib. ii. c. 17. 167. Lamy's Apparatus Biblicus, book i. ch. 5. vol. i. pp. 138—154. Calmet's Dictionary, articles Day, Week, Month, Year. Jahn, Archæologia Biblica, pp. 34—39. 136—162. Jennings' Jewish Antiquities, book iii. ch. i. pp. 296—308. See also Wessinger's Antiquitates Hebræicæ, part ii. v. 5. et seq.

CHAPTER V.

ON THE TRIBUTE AND TAXES MENTIONED IN THE SCRIPTURES.

I. *Annual Payments made by the Jews for the Support of their sacred worship.*—II. *Tributes paid to their own sovereigns.*—III. *Tributes and Customs paid by them to foreign powers.*—*Notice of the Money-changers.*—IV. *Account of the Publicans or Tax-Gatherers.*

I. AS no government can be supported without great charge, it is but just that every one who enjoys his share of protection from it, should contribute towards its maintenance and support. On the first departure of the Israelites from Egypt, before any regulation was made, the people contributed, on any extraordinary occasion, according to their ability, as in the case of the voluntary donations for the tabernacle. (Exod. xxv. 2. xxxv. 5.) After the tabernacle was erected, a payment of half a shekel was made by every male of twenty years of age and upwards (Exod. xxx. 13, 14), when the census, or *sum of the children of Israel* was taken: and on the return of the Jews from the Babylonian captivity, an annual payment of the *third part* of a shekel was made, for the maintenance of the temple-worship and service. (Neh. x. 32.) Subsequently, the enactment of Moses was deemed to be of perpetual obligation¹, and in the time of our Saviour two drachmæ, or half a shekel, were paid by every Jew, whether native or residing in foreign countries: besides which, every one, who was so disposed, made voluntary offerings according to his ability. (Mark xii. 41—44.) Hence vast quantities of gold were annually brought to Jerusalem into the temple², where there was an apartment called the *Treasury* (Ταζοφυλακιον), specially appropriated to their reception. After the destruction of Jerusalem, Vespasian by an edict commanded that the half shekel should in future be brought by the Jews, wherever they were, into the capitol.³ In addition to the preceding payments for the support of their sacred worship, we may notice the first fruits and tenths, of which an account is found in Part III. Chap. IV. *infra*.

II. Several of the Canaanitish tribes were tributary to the Israelites even from the time of Joshua (Josh. xvi. 10. xvii. 13. Judg. i. 28. 33.), whence they could not but derive considerable wealth. The Moabites and Syrians were tributary to David (2 Sam. viii. 2. 6.): and Solomon at the beginning of his reign compelled the Amorites, Hittites, Perizzites, Hivites, and Jebusites, who were left in the country, to pay him tribute, and to perform the drudgery of the pub-

¹ Josephus, de Bell. Jud. lib. vii. c. 6. § 6. Philonis Judæi Opera, tom ii. p. 224.

² Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xiv. c. 7. § 2. Cicero, Orat. pro Flacco, c. 28.

³ Josephus, de Bell. Jud. lib. vii. c. 6. § 6.

his works which he had undertaken, and from which the children of Israel were exempted. (1 Kings ix. 21, 22. 33. 2 Chron. viii. 9.) But towards the end of his reign he imposed tribute on them also (1 Kings v. 13, 14. ix. 15. xi. 27.), which alienated their minds, and sowed the seeds of that discontent, which afterwards ripened into open revolt by the rebellion of Jeroboam the son of Nebat.

III. Afterwards, however, the Israelites being subdued by other nations, were themselves compelled to pay tribute to their conquerors. Thus Pharaoh-Necho, king of Egypt, imposed a tribute of one hundred talents of silver and a talent of gold. (2 Kings xxiii. 33. 35.) After their return from captivity, the Jews paid tribute to the Persians, under whose government they were (Ezra iv. 13. vii. 24.); then to the Greeks, from which, however, they were exonerated when under the Maccabæes they had regained their liberty.¹ In later times, when they were conquered by the Roman arms under Pompey, they were again subjected to the payment of tribute, even though their princes enjoyed the honours and dignities of royalty, as was the case with Herod the Great (Luke ii. 1—5.): and afterwards, when Judæa was reduced into a Roman province, on the dethronement and banishment of his son Archelæus, the Romans imposed on the Jews not only the annual capitation tax of a denarius, but also a tax on goods imported or exported, and various other taxes and burthens. To this capitation tax the evangelists allude in Matt. xxii. 17. and Mark xii. 14. where it is termed *νομισμα κηνσου* (*numisma census*), or the tribute money. The Jews paid it with great reluctance; and raised various insurrections on account of it. Among these malcontents, Judas surnamed the Gaulonite or Galilæan distinguished himself: he pretended that it was not lawful to pay tribute to a foreigner; that it was the badge of actual servitude, and that they were not allowed to own any for their master who did not worship the Lord. These sentiments animated the Pharisees, who came to Christ with the insidious design of ensnaring him by the question, whether it was lawful to pay tribute to Cæsar or not? Which question he answered with equal wisdom and regard for the Roman government. (Matt. xxii. 17—21.) With these sentiments the Jews continued to be animated long after the ascension of Jesus Christ: and it should seem that some of the first Hebrew Christians had imbibed their principles. In opposition to which, the apostles Paul and Peter in their inimitable epistles strenuously recommend and inculcate on all sincere believers in Jesus Christ, the duties of submission and obedience to princes, and a conscientious discharge of their duty, in paying tribute. (Rom. xiii. 7. 1 Pet. ii. 13.)

To supply the Jews who came to Jerusalem from all parts of the Roman empire to pay the half-shekel with coins, and there, the money changers (*κολλυβισαι*) stationed themselves at tables, in the courts of the temple, and chiefly it should seem in the court of the

¹ 2 Macc. xii. 35, 36. 1 Macc. ii. 54. Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xiii. c. 2. § 8. c. 4.

Gentiles, for which they exacted a small fee, *kolbon* (κολλυβος). It was the tables on which these men trafficked for this unholy gain, which were overturned by Jesus Christ. (Matt. xxi. 12.)¹

The money-changers (called *τραπεζιται* in Matt. xxi. 12. and *περ-
ματισαι* in John ii. 14.) were also those who made a profit by ex-
changing money. They supplied the Jews, who came from distant
parts of Judæa and other parts of the Roman empire, with money,
to be received back at their respective homes, or which perhaps
they had paid before they commenced their journey. It is likewise
probable that they exchanged foreign coins for such as were current
at Jerusalem.

IV. The provincial tributes were usually farmed by Roman
knights², who had under them inferior collectors: Josephus has
made mention of several Jews who were Roman knights³, whence
Dr. Lardner thinks it probable that they had merited the equestrian
rank by their good services in collecting some part of the revenue.
The collectors of these tributes were known by the general name
of *Τελωναι*, that is, PUBLICANS, or tax-gatherers. Some of them
appear to have been receivers-general for a large district, as Zac-
cheus, who is styled a *chief publican* (*Αρχιτελωνης*). Matthew, who
is termed simply a *publican* (*Τελωνης*), was one who sat at the re-
ceipt of custom where the duty was paid on imports and exports.
(Matt. ix. 9. Luke v. 29. Mark ii. 14.) These officers, at least the
inferior ones (like the *rahdars* or toll-gatherers, in modern Persia⁴),
were generally rapacious, extorting more than the legal tribute;
whence they were reckoned infamous among the Greeks, and various
passages in the Gospels shew how odious they were to the Jews
(Mark ii. 15, 16. Luke iii. 13.), insomuch that the Pharisees would
hold no communication whatever with them, and imputed it to our
Saviour as a crime that he *sat at meat* with publicans. (Matt. ix. 10,
11. xi. 19. xxi. 31, 32.) The payment of taxes to the Romans was
accounted by the Jews an intolerable grievance: hence those who
assisted in collecting them were detested as plunderers in the cause
of the Romans, as betrayers of the liberties of their country, and as
abettors of those who had enslaved it; this circumstance will ac-
count for the contempt and hatred so often expressed by the Jews

¹ Grotius, Hammond, and Whithy, on Matt. xxi. 12. Dr. Lightfoot's Works, vol. ii. p. 225.

² Cicero, in Verrem, lib. iii. c. 72. Orat. pro Plancio, c. 9. De Petitione Consulatus, c. 1. Tacit. Annal. lib. iv. c. 6.

³ De Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. 14. § 9.

⁴ The *rahdars*, or toll-gatherers, are appointed to levy a toll upon *Kafilahs* or caravans of merchants; "who in general exercise their office with so much brutality and extortion, as to be execrated by all travellers. The police of the highways is confided to them, and whenever any goods are stolen, they are meant to be the instruments of restitution; but when they are put to the test, they are found to be inefficient. None but a man in power can hope to recover what he has once lost. . . . The collections of the toll are farmed, consequently extortion ensues; and as most of the *rahdars* receive no other emolument than what they can exact over and above the prescribed dues from the traveller, their insolence is accounted for on the one hand, and the detestation in which they are held on the other." Morier's Second Tour, p. 70.

in the evangelical histories against the collectors of the taxes or tribute.¹

The parable of the Pharisee and the Publican (Luke xviii. 10—13.) will derive considerable illustration from these circumstances. Our Saviour, in bringing these two characters together, appears to have chosen them as making the strongest contrast between what, in the public estimation, were the extremes of excellence and villany. The Pharisees, it is well known, were the most powerful sect among the Jews, and made great pretences to piety: and when the account of the Persian rahdars, given in the preceding page, is recollected, it will account for the Pharisee, in addressing God, having made *extortioners* and *the unjust*, almost synonymous terms with publicans; because, from his peculiar office, the rahdar is almost an extortioner by profession.²

CHAPTER VI.

ON THE TREATIES, OR COVENANTS, AND CONTRACTS OF THE JEWS.

I. *Whether the Jews were prohibited from concluding treaties with heathen nations.* — II. *Treaties, how made and ratified.* — *Covenant of Salt.* — *Allusions in the Scriptures to the making of Treaties or Covenants.* — III. *Contracts for the Sale and Cession of Alienable Property, how made.*

I. A TREATY is a pact or covenant made with a view to the public welfare by the superior power. It is a common mistake, that the Israelites were prohibited from forming alliances with Heathens: this would in effect have amounted to a general prohibition of alliance with any nation whatever, because at that time all the world were Heathens. In the Mosaic law, not a single statute is enacted, that prohibits the conclusion of treaties with heathen nations in general; although, for the reasons therein specified, Moses either commands them to carry on eternal war against the Canaanites, Amalekites, Moabites, and Ammonites, or else forbids all friendship with these particular nations. It is however clear, from Deut. xxiii. 4—9., that he did not entertain the same opinion with regard to *all* foreign nations: for in that passage, though the Moabites are pronounced to be an abomination to the Israelites, no such declaration is made respecting the Edomites. Further, it is evident that they felt themselves bound religiously to observe treaties when actually concluded; though one of the contracting parties had been guilty of fraud in the transaction, as in the case of the treaty with the Gibeonites. (Josh. ix.) David and Solomon lived in alliance

with the king of Tyre; and the former with the king of Hamath (2 Sam. viii. 9, 10.); and the queen of Sheba cannot be regarded in any other light than as an ally of Solomon's. The only treaties condemned by the prophets are those with the Egyptians and Assyrians, which were extremely prejudicial to the nation, by involving it continually in quarrels with sovereigns more powerful than the Jewish monarchs.

II. Various solemnities were used in the conclusion of treaties; sometimes it was done by a simple junction of the hands. (Prov. xi. 21. Ezek. xvii. 18.) The Hindoos to this day ratify an engagement by one person laying his right hand on the hand of the other.¹ Sometimes also the covenant was ratified by erecting a heap of stones, to which a suitable name was given, referring to the subject-matter of the covenant (Gen. xxxi. 44—54.); that made between Abraham and the king of Gerar was ratified by the oath of both parties, by a present from Abraham to the latter of seven ewe lambs, and by giving a name to the well which had given occasion to the transaction. (Gen. xxi. 22—32.) It was moreover customary to cut the victim (which was to be offered as a sacrifice upon the occasion) into two parts, and so placing each half upon two different altars, to cause those who contracted the covenant to pass between both. (Gen. xv. 9, 10. 17. Jer. xxxiv. 18.) This rite was practised both by believers and heathens at their solemn leagues; at first doubtless with a view to the great sacrifice, who was to purge our sins in his own blood: and the offering of these sacrifices, and passing between the parts of the divided victim, was symbolically staking their hopes of purification and salvation on their performance of the conditions on which it was offered.

This remarkable practice may be clearly traced in the Greek and Latin writers. Homer has the following expression:

Ὀρκία πιστὰ ταμύοντες.

Iliad, lib ii. ver. 124.

Having cut faithful oaths.

Eustathius explains the passage by saying, they were oaths relating to important matters, and were made by the division of the victim. See also Virgil, *Æn.* viii. ver. 640.

The editor of the fragments supplementary to Calmet² is of opinion that what is yet practised of this ceremony may elucidate that passage in Isa. xxviii. 15. *We have made a covenant with death, and with hell are we at agreement; when the overflowing scourge shall pass through, it shall not come unto us, for we have made lies our refuge, and under falsehood have we hid ourselves.* As if it had been said:—We have cut off a covenant sacrifice, a purification offering with death, and with the grave we have settled, so that the scourge shall not injure us. May not such a custom have been the origin of the following superstition related by Pitts? “If they (the Algerine corsairs) at any time happen to be in a very great strait or distress,

¹ Ward's View of the History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. ii. p. 328.

² No. 129.

as being chased, or in a storm, they will gather money, light up candles in remembrance of some dead marrabot (saint) or other, calling upon him with heavy sighs and groans. If they find no succour from their before-mentioned rites and superstitions, but that the danger rather increases, then they go to sacrificing a sheep (or two or three upon occasion, as they think needful), which is done after this manner: having cut off the head with a knife, they immediately take out the entrails, and throw them and the head overboard; and then, with all the speed they can (without skinning) they cut the body into two parts by the middle, and throw one part over the right side of the ship, and the other over the left, into the sea, as a kind of propitiation. Thus those blind infidels apply themselves to imaginary intercessors, instead of the living and true God." ¹ In the case here referred to, the ship passes between the parts thus thrown on each side of it. This behaviour of the Algerines may be taken as a pretty accurate counterpart to that of making a covenant with death and with imminent danger of destruction, by appeasing the angry gods.

Festivities always accompanied the ceremonies attending oaths. Isaac and Abimelech feasted at making their covenant (Gen. xxvi. 30.), and he made them a feast, and they did eat and drink. (Gen. xxxi. 54.) Jacob offered sacrifice upon the mount, and called his brethren to eat bread. This practice was also usual amongst the heathen nations." ²

Afterwards, when the Mosaic law was established, and the people were settled in the land of Canaan, the people feasted, in their peace offerings, on a part of the sacrifice, in token of their reconciliation with God (Deut. xii. 6, 7.): and thus, in the sacrament of the Lord's supper, we renew our covenant with God, and (in the beautiful language of the communion office of the Anglican church) "we offer and present ourselves, our souls and bodies, to a reasonable, holy, and lively sacrifice" unto Him, being at His table feasted with the bread and wine, the representation of the sacrifice of Christ's body and blood; who by himself once offered upon the cross has made a full, perfect, and sufficient sacrifice, oblation, and atonement for the sin of the whole world.

Sometimes the parties to the covenant were sprinkled with the blood of the victim. Thus Moses, after sprinkling part of the blood on the altar, to shew that Jehovah was a party to the covenant, sprinkled part of it on the Israelites, and said unto them, *Behold the blood of the covenant which the Lord hath made with you.* (Exod. xxiv. 6, 8.) To this transaction Saint Paul alludes in his Epistle to the Hebrews (ix. 20.), and explains its evangelical meaning.

The Scythians are said to have first poured wine from an earthen

¹ Travels, p. 18.

² Burder's Oriental Customs, vol. ii. p. 84. — 2d edition. See examples of the ancient mode of ratifying covenants, in Homer. Il. lib. iii. verses 103, 107, 245. et seq. Virg. Æn. lib. viii. 641. xii. 169. et seq. Dionysius Halicarnassensis, lib. v. c. 1. Hooke's Roman History, vol. i. p. 67.

vessel, and then the contracting parties, cutting their arms with a knife, let some of the blood run into the wine, with which they stained their armour. After which they themselves, together with the other persons present, drank of the mixture, uttering the direst maledictions on the party who should violate the treaty.

Another mode of ratifying covenants was by the superior contracting party presenting to the other some article of his own dress or arms. Thus *Jonathan stripped himself of the robe that was upon him, and gave it to David, and his garments, even to the sword, and to his bow, and to his girdle.* (1 Sam. xviii. 4.) The highest honour, which a king of Persia can bestow upon a subject, is to cause himself to be disapparelled, and to give his robe to the favoured individual.

In Numb. xviii. 19. mention is made of a *covenant of salt*. The expression appears to be borrowed from the practice of ratifying their federal engagements by salt; which, as it not only imparted a relish to different kinds of viands, but also preserved them from putrefaction and decay, became the emblem of incorruptibility and permanence. It is well known, from the concurrent testimony of voyagers and travellers, that the Asiatics deem the eating together as a bond of perpetual friendship: and as salt is now (as it antiently was) a common article in all their repasts, it may be in reference to this circumstance that a perpetual covenant is termed a *covenant of salt*; because the contracting parties ate together of the sacrifice offered on the occasion, and the whole transaction was considered as a league of endless friendship.³ In order to assure those persons to whom the divine promises were made, of their certainty and stability, the Almighty not only willed that they should have the force of a covenant; but also vouchsafed to accommodate Himself (if we may be permitted to use such an expression) to the received customs. Thus, he constituted the rainbow a sign of his covenant with mankind that the earth should be no more destroyed by a deluge (Gen. ix. 12—17.); and in a vision appeared to Abraham to pass between the divided pieces of the sacrifice, which the patriarch had offered. (Gen. xv. 12—17.) Jehovah further instituted the rite of circumcision, as a token of the covenant between himself and Abraham (Gen. xvii. 9—14.); and sometimes swore by Himself (Gen. xxii. 16. Luke i. 73.), that is, pledged his eternal power and godhead for the fulfilment of his promise, there being no one superior to Himself to whom he could make appeal, or by whom he could be bound. Saint Paul beautifully illustrates this transaction in his Epistle to the Hebrews. (vi. 13—18.) Lastly, the whole of the Mosaic constitution was a mutual covenant between Jehovah and the Israelites; the tables of which being preserved in an ark, the latter was thence termed the *ark of the covenant*, and as (we have

¹ Herodotus, lib. ix. c. 72. vol. i. p. 73. Oxon. 1809. Doughtrei Analecta, 1. p. 69.

² Harmer's Observations, vol. ii. p. 97. Burder's Or. Cust. vol. i. p. 206.

³ Some pleasing facts from modern history, illustrative of the covenant of salt, are collected by the industrious editor of Calmet, Fragments, No. 130.

just seen) the blood of the victims slain in ratification of that covenant, was termed the *blood of the covenant*. (Exod. xxiv. 8. Zech. ix. 11.) Referring to this, our Saviour, when instituting the Lord's supper, after giving the cup, said *This is* (signifies or represents) *my blood of the New Covenant, which is shed for many, for the remission of sins*. (Matt. xxvi. 28.) By this very remarkable expression, Jesus Christ teaches us, that as his body was to be *broken* or crucified *υπερ ημων*, in our stead, so his blood was to be *poured out* (*εξυπορευον*, a sacrificial term) to make an *atonement*, as the words *remission of sins* evidently imply; for *without shedding of blood there is no remission* (Heb. ix. 22.); nor any remission by shedding of blood but in a sacrificial way. Compare Heb. ix. 20. and xiii. 12.

III. What treaties or covenants were between the high contracting powers who were authorised to conclude them, that contracts of bargain and sale are between private individuals.

Among the Hebrews, and long before them among the Canaanites, the purchase of any thing of consequence was concluded and the price paid, at the gate of the city, as the seat of judgment, before all who went out and came in. (Gen. xxiii. 16—20. Ruth iv. 1, 2.) As persons of leisure and those who wanted amusement, were wont to sit in the gates, purchases there made could always be testified by numerous witnesses. From Ruth iv. 7—11. we learn another singular usage on occasions of purchase, cession and exchange, viz. that in earlier times, the transfer of alienable property was confirmed by the proprietor plucking off his shoe at the city gate, in the presence of the elders and other witnesses, and handing it over to the new owner. The origin of this custom it is impossible to trace: but it had evidently become antiquated in the time of David, as the author of the book of Ruth introduces it as an unknown custom of former ages.

In process of time the joining or striking of hands, already mentioned with reference to public treaties, was introduced as a ratification of a bargain and sale. This usage was not unknown in the days of Job (xvii. 3.), and Solomon often alludes to it. (See Prov. vi. 1. xi. 15. xvii. 18. xx. 16. xxii. 26. xxvii. 43.) The earliest vestige of written instruments, sealed and delivered for ratifying the disposal and transfer of property, occurs in Jer. xxxii. 10—12., which the prophet commanded Baruch to bury in an earthen vessel in order to be preserved for production at a future period, as evidence of the purchase. (14, 15.) No mention is expressly made of the manner in which deeds were antiently cancelled. Some commentators have imagined that in Col. ii. 14. Saint Paul refers to the cancelling of them by blotting or drawing a line across them, or by striking them through with a nail: but we have no information whatever from antiquity to authorise such a conclusion.

CHAPTER VII.

OF THE MILITARY AFFAIRS OF THE JEWS AND OTHER
NATIONS MENTIONED IN THE SCRIPTURES.

SECTION I.

ON THE MILITARY DISCIPLINE OF THE JEWS.

- I. *The earliest Wars, predatory excursions.* — II. *Character of the Wars of the Israelites — Their Levies how raised. — Cherethites and Pelethites. — Standing armies of the sovereigns of Israel.* — III. *Divisions, and Officers of the Jewish armies ; — which were sometimes conducted by the kings in person.* — IV. *Encampments.* — V. *Military Schools and Training.* — VI. *Defensive Arms.* — VII. *Offensive Arms.* — VIII. *Fortifications.* — IX. *Mode of declaring War.* — X. *Order of Battle.* — *Treatment of the Slain of Captured Cities, and of Captives.* — XI. *Triumphant Reception of the Conquerors.* — XII. *Distribution of the Spoil.* — *Military Honours conferred on eminent warriors.*

I. **T**HERE were not wanting in the earliest ages of the world, men who, abusing the power and strength which they possessed to the purposes of ambition, usurped upon their weaker neighbours. Such was the origin of the kingdom founded by the plunderer Nimrod (Gen. x. 8—10.), whose name signifies a *rebel* ; and it was most probably given him, from his rejection of the laws both of God and man, and supporting by force a tyranny over others. As mankind continued to increase, quarrels and contests would naturally arise, and, spreading from individuals to families, tribes, and nations, produced wars. Of the military affairs of those times we have very imperfect notices in the Scriptures. These wars, however, appear to have been nothing more than predatory incursions, like those of the modern Wahabees and Bedouin Arabs, so often described by oriental travellers. The patriarch Abraham, on learning that his kinsman Lot had been taken captive by Chedorlaomer and his confederate emirs or petty kings, mustered his tried servants, three hundred and eighteen in number ; and coming against the enemy by night, he divided his forces and totally discomfited them. (Gen. xiv. 14—16.) The other patriarchs also armed their servants and dependents, when a conflict was expected. (Gen. xxxii. 7—12. xxxv. 1.)

Although the Jews are now the very reverse of being a military people (in which circumstance we may recognise the accomplishment of prophecy¹), yet antiently they were eminently distinguished for their prowess. But the notices concerning their discipline, which are presented to us in the sacred writings, are few and brief.

The wars in which the Israelites were engaged, were of two kinds, either such as were expressly enjoined by divine command, or such as were voluntary and entered upon by the prince for revenging some national affronts, and for the honour of his sovereignty. Of the first sort were those undertaken against the seven nations of Canaan, whom God had devoted to destruction, viz. the Hittites, the Amorites, the Canaanites (strictly so called), the Perizzites, the Hivites, the Jebusites, and the Girgashites. These the Israelites were commanded to extirpate, and to settle themselves in their place. (Deut. vii. 1, 2. and xx. 16, 17.) There were indeed other nations who inhabited this country in the days of Abraham, as may be seen in Gen. xv. 19, 20. But these had either become extinct since that time, or being but a small people were incorporated with the rest. To these seven nations no terms of peace could be offered; for, being guilty of gross idolatries and other detestable vices of all kinds, God thought them unfit to live any longer upon the face of the earth. These wars thus undertaken by the command of God, were called *the wars of the Lord*, of which a particular record seems to have been kept, as mentioned in Numb. xxi. 14.

In the voluntary wars of the Israelites, which were undertaken upon some national account, such as most of those were in the times of the Judges, when the Moabites, Philistines, and other neighbouring nations invaded their country, and such as that of David against the Ammonites, whose king had affronted his ambassadors, — there were certain rules established by God, which were to regulate their conduct, both in the undertaking and carrying on of these wars. As, first, they were to proclaim peace to them, which, if they accepted, these people were to become tributaries to them; but if they refused, all the males, upon besieging the city, were allowed to be slain, if the Israelites thought fit; but the women and little ones were to be spared, and the cattle with the other goods of the city were to belong as spoil, to the Israelites. (Deut. xx. 10—15.) Secondly, in besieging a city they were not to commit unnecessary waste and depredations, for though they were allowed to cut down barren trees of all sorts, to serve the purposes of their approaches, yet they were obliged to spare the fruit-trees, as being necessary to support the lives of the inhabitants in future times, when the little rancour, which was the occasion of their present hostilities, should be removed and done away. (Deut. xx. 19, 20.)

The Israelites, in the beginning of their republic, appear to have been a timorous and cowardly people; their spirits were broken by their bondage in Egypt; and this base temper soon appeared upon the approach of Pharaoh and his army, before the Israelites passed through the Red Sea, which made them murmur so much against Moses. (Exod. xiv. 10, 11, 12.) But in no instance was their cowardice more evident, than when they heard the report of the spies concerning the inhabitants of the land, which threw them into a fit of despondency and made them resolve to return into Egypt, notwithstanding all the miracles wrought for them by God. (Numb. xiv.

1—6.) It was on this account that David, who was well acquainted with their disposition, says, that *they got not the land in possession by their own sword, neither did their own arm save them, but thy right hand and thine arm, and the light of thy countenance, because thou hadst a favour unto them.* (Psal. xliv. 3.)

After their departure from Egypt, the whole of the men, from twenty years and upwards until the age of fifty (when they might demand their discharge if they chose), were liable to military service, the priests and Levites not excepted. (Numb. i. 3. 29. xxiii. 20. 1 Kings ii. 35.) Like the militia in some countries and the hardy mountaineers of Lebanon at this day¹ they were always ready to assemble at the shortest notice. If the occasion were extremely urgent, affecting their existence as a people, all were summoned to war; but ordinarily, when there was no necessity for convoking the whole of their forces, a selection was made. Thus Joshua chose twelve thousand men, in order to attack the Amalekites (Exod. xvii. 9, 10.): in the war with the Midianites, one thousand men were selected out of each tribe (Numb. xxxi. 4, 5.), and in the rash assault upon the city of Ai, three thousand men were employed. (Josh. vii. 3, 4.) The book of Judges furnishes numerous instances of this mode of selection. Hence we read in the Scriptures of *choosing* the men, not of *levying* them. In like manner, under the Roman republic, all the citizens of the military age (seventeen to forty-six years) were obliged to serve a certain number of campaigns, when they were commanded. On the day appointed, the consuls held a levy (*delectum habebant*), by the assistance of the military or legionary tribunes; when it was determined by lot in what manner the tribes should be called. The consuls ordered such as they pleased to be cited out of each tribe, and every one was obliged to answer to his name under a severe penalty. On certain occasions, some of the most refractory were put to death.² To the above described mode of selecting troops, our Saviour alluded, when he said that *many are called but few chosen* (Matt. xx. 16.): the great mass of the people being convened, choice was made of those who were the most fit for service.

This mode of selecting soldiers accounts for the formation of those vast armies, in a very short space of time, of which we read in the Old Testament. The men of Jabesh Gilead, who, in the beginning of Saul's reign, were besieged by the Ammonites, had only seven days' respite given them to send messengers to the coasts of Israel, after which, if no relief came to them, they were to deliver up the city and have their eyes put out, which was the best condition, it

¹ A recent learned traveller in the Holy Land, describing the present state of Mount Lebanon, says, that, "of the peasants, great numbers carry arms. In fact, every young man may in some sense be called a soldier, and would in case of need master as such: the gun which serves him for field-sport and sustenance, is ready for the call of war; and his discipline consists in the bracing, hardy habits of a mountaineer." Rev. W. Jowett's *Christian Researches in Syria*, p. 74. (London, 1825. 8vo.)

² Dr. Adam's *Roman Antiquities*. pp. 22, 368. fifth edit.

seems, they could procure. (1 Sam. xi. 1, 2, 3.) As soon as Saul was informed of it, he by a symbolical representation of cutting a yoke of oxen in pieces, and sending them all over Israel, signified what should be done to the oxen of such as did not appear upon this summons. In consequence of this summons, we find that an army of *three hundred and thirty thousand men* was formed, who relieved the place within the seven days allowed them. In like manner, when the children of Israel had heard of the crime that was committed by the inhabitants of Gibeah against the Levite's concubine, it is said, that they resolved not to return to their houses till they had fully avenged this insult (Judg. xx. 8.), and accordingly upon the tribe of Benjamin's refusing to deliver up these men, an army was soon gathered together of four hundred thousand men of war. (verse 17.) Nor was the providing of their armies with necessities any impediment to these sudden levies; for in the beginning of the Jewish republic, their armies consisting altogether of infantry, every one served at their own expence, and ordinarily carried their own arms and provisions along with them. And thus we find that Jesse sent a supply of provisions by David to his other three sons that were in Saul's camp (1 Sam. xvii. 13. 17.), which gave David an opportunity of engaging Goliath; and this was the chief reason why their wars in those days were ordinarily but of a short continuance, it being hardly possible that a large body could subsist long upon such provisions as every one carried along with him. After the time of Solomon, their armies became vastly numerous: we read that Abijah king of Judah had an army of four hundred thousand men, with which he fought Jeroboam king of Israel, who had double that number (2 Chron. xiii. 3.), and it is said there were five hundred thousand killed of Jeroboam's army. (ver. 17.) Asa king of Judah had an army of nearly six hundred thousand men, when he was attacked by Zerah the Ethiopian with an host of a million of men. (2 Chron. xiv. 8, 9.) Jehosaphat king of Judah had eleven hundred and sixty thousand men, without reckoning the garrisons in his fortified places. (2 Chron. xvii. 14—19.)

Various regulations were made by Moses concerning the Israelitish soldiers, which are characterised by equal wisdom and humanity. Not to repeat what has already been noticed in p. 186: we may remark that the following classes of persons were wholly exempted from military service (Deut. xx. 5—8. xxiv. 8.) viz.:

1. He, who had built a new house, and had not dedicated it, was to return home, lest he should die in battle, and another man dedicate it. From the title of Psal. xxx. — *A Psalm or Song at the dedication of the house of David*, it was evidently a custom in Israel to dedicate a new house to Jehovah, with prayer, praise, and thanksgiving, in order that he might obtain the divine blessing.

2. Those who had planted a vine or olive tree, and who had not yet eaten of its produce.

3. Every man who had betrothed a wife, and had not taken her home. — We know, that among the Jews a considerable time

sometimes elapsed between the espousal or betrothing of the parties and the celebration of a marriage. When the bridegroom had made proper preparations, the bride was conducted to his house and the nuptials were consummated.

4. Every newly married man, during the first year after his marriage. The humanity of these three exemptions will be the more evident, when it is recollected that, antiently, it was deemed an excessive hardship for a person to be obliged to go to battle (in which there was a probability of his being slain) who had left a new house unfinished, a newly purchased heritage half tilled, or a wife with whom he had just contracted marriage. Homer represents the case of Protesilaus as singularly afflicting, who was obliged to go to the Trojan war, leaving his wife in the deepest distress, and his house unfinished.¹

4. The last exemption was in favour of the *fearful and faint-hearted*; an exemption of such a disgraceful nature, that one would think it never would have been claimed. Such, however, was the case in Gideon's expedition against the Midianites. Ten thousand only remained out of *thirty-two thousand*, of which number his army originally consisted; twenty-two thousand having complied with his proclamation, that *whosoever was fearful and afraid* might return and depart early from mount Gilead. (Judg. vii. 3.) Before the regal government was established, the Israelitish army was entirely disbanded at the conclusion of a war. The earliest instance recorded of any military force being kept in time of peace, is in the reign of Saul, who retained two thousand for his body guard, and one thousand for his son Jonathan's guard. (1 Sam. xiii. 1, 2.) David had a distinct guard, called Cherethites and Pelethites, concerning the origin of whose name various contradictory opinions have been offered. Josephus, however, expressly says that they were his guards, and the Chaldee paraphrast (as we have already remarked) terms them *archers* and *slingers*.² Besides these he had twelve bodies of twenty-four thousand men each, who were on duty for one month, forming an aggregate of two hundred and eighty-eight thousand men. (1 Chron. xxvii. 1—15.) Subsequently, when the art of war was improved, a regular force seems to have been kept up, both in peace and war; for, exclusive of the vast army which Jehosaphat had in the field, we read that he had troops throughout all the fenced cities, which doubtless were garrisoned in time of peace as well as during war.

III. The *Officers* who were placed at the head of the Hebrew forces appear not to have differed materially from those whom we find in antient and modern armies.

The *Division* of the army into *three bands* or companies, mentioned in Gen. xiv. 14, 15. Job i. 17. Judg. vii. 16, 20. 1 Sam.

¹ Iliad, lib. ii. 700—702.

² On this subject the reader may consult the Dissertations of Ikenius, De Crethi et Pletii (Log. Bat. 1736), and of Lakeinacher, Observationes Philologicae, part ii. pp. 31—44, and also Michaelis's Commentaries on the Law of Moses, § 232.

xl. 11. and 2 Sam. xviii. 2., was probably no other than the division into the *centre*, *left*, and *right wing*, which obtains in the modern art of war. The Hebrews, when they departed from Egypt, marched in military order, **עַל צְבֹתָם** (AL TSEBOTAM) *by their armies or hosts* (Exod. xii. 51.), and **וְחֻמְשֵׁי** (ve-CHAMUSHIM), which word in our English Bible (Exod. xiii. 18.) is rendered *harnessed*, and in the margin, *by five in a rank*. It is probable, from these expressions, that they followed each other in ranks fifty deep, and that at the head of each rank or file of fifty was the captain of fifty. (1 Sam. viii. 12. 2 Kings i. 9—14.) The other divisions consisted of tens, hundreds, thousands, &c.; and the officers that commanded them are styled captains of thousands, captains of hundreds, captains of fifties, and captains of tens; of these mention is made in 1 Chron. xii. 14. 20. xiii. 1. xxviii. 1. and 2 Kings i. 9. 11. 13. These, probably, were of the same rank with those whom Moses constituted in the wilderness, rulers of thousands, &c. (Exod. xviii. 25.) and who at first acted in a double capacity, being at the same time civil magistrates and military officers. The captains of thousands seem to have been much the same as colonels of regiments with us; and the captains of hundreds might probably answer to those who in our army have the command of troops and companies; the captains of fifties and tens to our subalterns, serjeants, and corporals. During the Mosiac commonwealth, in conformity to the law in Deut. xx. 9., all these officers were appointed by the *Shoterim*, genealogists or officers (as they are termed in our version), who probably chose the *heads of families*; but after the monarchy took place, they received their commissions either from the king in the same manner as at present, as appears from 2 Sam. xviii. 1. and 2 Chron. xxv. 5.; or from the commander in chief (2 Sam. xviii. 11.): and it should seem that a captain's commission was denoted by giving a military girdle or sash. (2 Sam. xviii. 11.)

The principal officer, or leader of the whole army, (who, in the Scriptures, is termed the *Captain of the Lord's Host*,) appears to have been of the same rank with him, who is now called the commander in chief of an army. Such were Joshua and the Judges under the primitive constitution of their government as settled by God himself: such was Abner under Saul (2 Sam. ii. 8.), Joab under David (2 Sam. xx. 23.), and Amasa under Absalom, when he was raising a rebellion against his father. (2 Sam. xvii. 25.) The command and authority of this captain of the host appear to have been very great, sometimes indeed nearly equal to that of the sovereign. David seems to have been afraid of Joab his commander in chief; otherwise he would never have suffered him to live after a sanguinary assassinations which he had perpetrated. It is evident that the captain of the host enjoyed great influence in the court of Eliaha: for we read, that the prophet having been hospitably entertained by a wealthy woman at Shunem, and being desirous of making her some acknowledgment for her kindness, ordered his servant Gehazi to inquire what she would wish to have done for her. *Wouldest*

thou be spoken for to the king, or to the CAPTAIN OF THE HOST? (2 Kings iv. 13.)

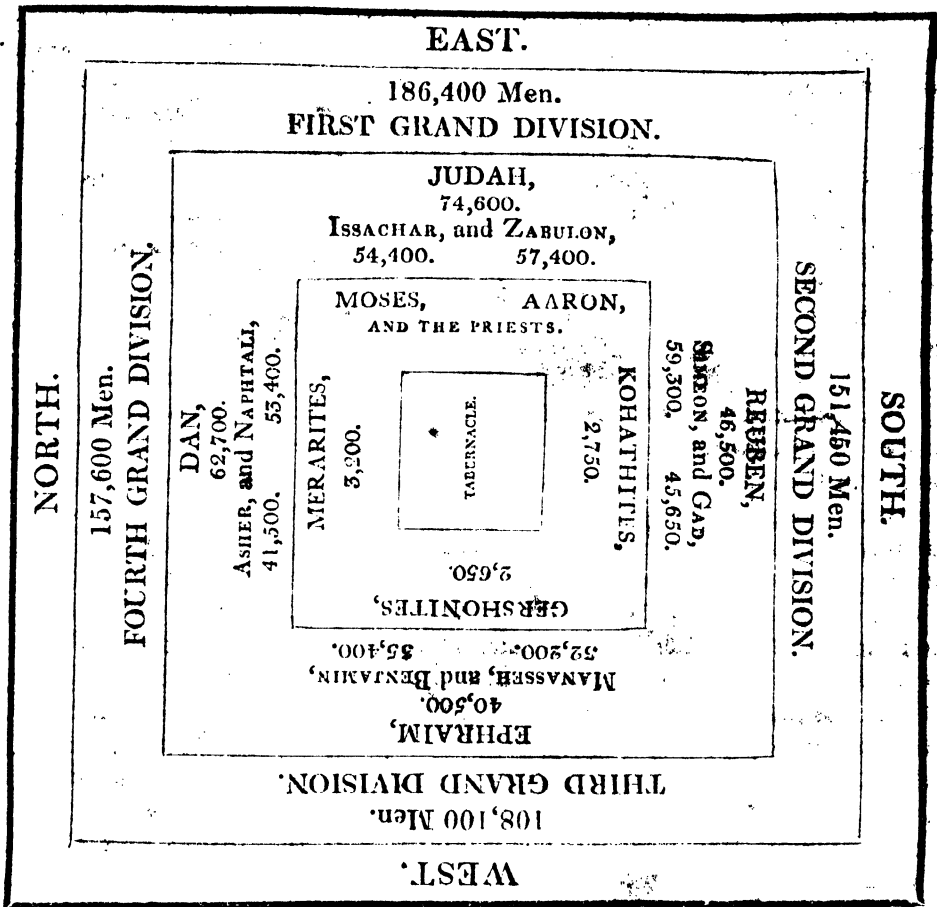
After the establishment of the monarchy, the kings went to war in person, and at first fought on foot, like the meanest of their soldiers. Thus David fought, until the danger to which he exposed himself became so great, that his people would no longer allow him to lead them on to battle. (2 Sam. xxi. 17.) It does not appear that there were any horse in the Israelitish army before the time of Solomon. In the time of David there were none; for the rebel Absalom was mounted on a mule in the battle in which he lost his life. (2 Sam. xviii. 9.) Solomon, who had married the daughter of the king of Egypt, procured horses from that country at a great expense (1 Kings x. 28, 29.); and afterwards had four thousand stalls for horses and chariots, and twelve thousand horsemen. (2 Chron. ix. 25.) Subsequent kings of Judah and Israel went into the battle in chariots, arrayed in their royal vestments, or sometimes in disguise. They generally had a spare chariot to attend them: thus we read that king Josiah, after he was mortally wounded, was taken out of his war-chariot, and put into another, in which he was carried to Jerusalem. (2 Chron. xxxv. 23, 24. 1 Kings xxii. 34.) Both kings and generals had armour-bearers, who were chosen from the bravest of the soldiery, and not only bore the arms of their masters, but were also employed to give his commands to the subordinate captains, and were present at his side in the hour of peril. (1 Sam. xiv. 6. xvii. 7.)

Military chariots were much in use among the Egyptians, Canaanites, and other oriental nations.¹ Two sorts are mentioned in the Scriptures; one in which princes and generals rode, the other to break the enemy's battalions by rushing in among them, armed with iron, which caused terrible havoc. The most antient war-chariots, of which we read, are those of Pharaoh, which were destroyed in the Red Sea. (Exod. xiv. 7.) The Canaanites, whom Joshua engaged at the waters of Merom, had cavalry and a multitude of chariots. (Josh. xi. 4.) Sisera, the general of Jabin, king of Hazor, had nine hundred chariots of iron in his army. (Judg. iv. 3.) The tribe of Judah could not obtain possession of part of the lands allotted to them, because the inhabitants of the country were strong in chariots of iron. (Judg. i. 19.) The Philistines, in their war with Saul, had thirty thousand chariots, and six thousand horsemen. (1 Sam. xiii. 5.) David, having taken a thousand war-chariots from Hadadezer, king of Damascus, ham-strung the horses, and burnt nine hundred chariots, reserving only one hundred. (2 Sam. viii. 4.) It does not appear that the Hebrews ever used chariots in war, though they had a considerable number; but we know of no military expedition in which they employed them. In the book of Maccabees, mention is made of chariots armed with scythes, which the king of

the Jews. (2 Mac. xiii. 2.) The infantry.

cavalry, and war-chariots, were so arranged as to form separate divisions of an army. (Exod. xiv. 6, 7.) The infantry were likewise divided into *light-armed troops* and into *spear-men* (Gen. xlix. 19. 1 Sam. xxx. 8. 15. 23. 2 Sam. iii. 22. iv. 2. xxii. 30. Psal. xviii. 30. in the Hebrew, 29 of English version, 2 Kings v. 2. Hos. vii. 1.) The light-armed troops of infantry were furnished with a sling and javelin, with a bow, arrows, and quiver, and also, at least in later times, with a buckler: they fought the enemy at a distance. The spear-men, on the contrary, who were armed with spears, swords, and shields, fought hand to hand. (1 Chron. xii. 24. 34. 2 Chron. xiv. 8. xvii. 17.) The light-armed troops were commonly taken from the tribes of Ephraim and Benjamin. (2 Chron. xiv. 8. xvii. 17.)

IV. No information is given us in the Scriptures, concerning the order of encampment adopted by the Israelites after their settlement in Canaan. During their sojourning in the wilderness, the form of their camp, according to the account given in Numb. ii., appears to have been quadrangular, having three tribes placed on each side, under one general standard, so as to inclose the tabernacle, which stood in the centre. Between these four great camps and the tabernacle were pitched four smaller camps of the priests and Levites, who were immediately in attendance upon it; the camp of Moses and of Aaron and his sons (who were the ministering priests, and had the charge of the sanctuary) was on the east side of the tabernacle, where the entrance was. From Isa. liv. 2. it appears that the tents, under which they lived, were nearly the same as those which are now in use in the East. Every family and household had their particular ensign; under which they encamped or pursued their march. Rabbinical writers assert that the standard of Judah was a lion; that of Reuben, the figure of a man; that of Ephraim, an ox; that of Dan, an eagle with a serpent in his talons¹; but for these assertions there is no foundation. They are probably derived from the patriarch's prophetic blessing of his children, related in Gen. xlix. It is far more probable, that the names of the several tribes were embroidered in large letters on their respective standards, or that they were distinguished by appropriate colours. The following diagram, after Rechenberg and other writers on Jewish antiquities, will perhaps give the reader a tolerable idea of the beautiful order of the Israelitish encampment; the sight of which, from the mountains of Moab, extorted from Balaam (when he saw Israel abiding in his tents according to their tribes) the following exclamation:—*How goodly are thy tents, O Jacob, and thy tabernacles, O Israel! As the vallies are they spread forth, as gardens by the river's side, as the trees of lign aloes which the Lord hath planted, and as cedar trees beside the waters.* (Numb. xxiv. 2, 5, 6.)



During the encampment of the Israelites in the wilderness, Moses made various salutary enactments, which are recorded in Deut. xxiii. 10—15, for guarding against the vice and uncleanness that might otherwise have prevailed among so large a body of people, forming an aggregate of upwards of three millions. The following was the order of their march, which is not much unlike that in which the caravans or assemblages of oriental travellers still continue to move. — When they were to remove (which was only when the cloud was taken off the tabernacle) the trumpet was sounded, and upon the first alarm the standard of Judah being raised, the three tribes which belonged to it set forward; then the tabernacle being taken down, which was the proper office of the Levites, the Gershonites and the Merarites (two families of that order) attended the waggons with the boards, staves, &c. When these were on their march a second alarm was sounded, upon which the standard of Reuben's camp advanced with the three tribes under it. After them followed the Kohathites (the third family of the Levites) bearing the sanctuary, that is, the Holy of Holies and the utensils thereto belonging; and because this was less cumbersome than the boards, pillars, and other parts of the tabernacle, and more holy, it was on that account not put into a waggon, but carried on their

shoulders. Next followed the standard of Ephraim's camp with the tribes belonging to it: and last of all the other three tribes under the standard of Dan brought up the rear; Moses and Aaron overseeing the whole, that every thing was done as God had directed, while the sons of Aaron were chiefly employed in blowing the trumpets, and other offices properly belonging to them.

From 1 Sam. xxvi. 5., as rendered in our authorised version (*Saul lay in the trench, and the people pitched round about him,*) it has been imagined that the Israelites had a fortified camp. The proper rendering is, that *Saul lay among the baggage*, with his spear stuck at his head (v. 7.), in the same manner as is usual among the Persians¹, and also among the Arabs to this day, wherever the disposition of the ground will permit it: their emir or prince being in the centre of the Arabs around him at a respectful distance.² When David is represented as sometimes secreting himself in the night, when he was with his armies, instead of lodging with the people (2 Sam. xvii. 8, 9.), it probably means that he did not lodge in the middle of the camp, which was the proper place for a king, in order that he might the better avoid any surprise from his enemies.³

V. In antient times the Hebrews received no pay, during their military service: the same practice of gratuitous service obtained among the Greeks and Romans, in the early period of their respective republics.⁴ The Cherethites and Pelethites appear to have been the first stipendiary soldiers: it is however probable that the great military officers of Saul, David, Solomon, and the other kings had some allowance suitable to the dignity of their rank. The soldiers were paid out of the king's treasury: and in order to stimulate their valour, rewards and honours were publicly bestowed on those who distinguished themselves against the enemy; consisting of pecuniary presents, a girdle or belt, a woman of quality for a wife, exemptions from taxes, promotion to a higher rank in the army, &c., all of which were attended with great profit and distinction. (2 Sam. xviii. 11. Jos. xv. 16. 1 Sam. xviii. 25. 1 Chron. xi. 6.) In the age of the Maccabees, the patriot Simon both armed and paid his brave companions in arms, at his own expense. (1 Mac. xiy. 32.) Afterwards, it became an established custom, that all soldiers should receive pay. (Luke iii. 14. 1 Cor. ix. 7.)

It appears from various passages of Scripture, and especially from Isa. ii. 4. and Mich. iv. 3., that there were military schools, in which the Hebrew soldiers were trained, by proper officers, in those exercises which were in use among the other nations of antiquity. Swiftmess of foot was an accomplishment highly valued among the Hebrew warriors, both for attacking and pursuing an enemy, as well as among the antient Greeks and Romans. In

¹ Morier's Second Journey into Persia, pp. 115, 116.

² Dr. Della Cella's Narrative of an Expedition from Tripoli in Barbary to the Western Frontiers of Egypt, p. 11. London, 1822. 8vo.

³ Harmer's Observations, vol. iii. pp. 430, 431.

⁴ Livy, lib. iv. c. 59. Bruning's Antiquit. Græc. p. 102.

2 Sam. i. 19. Saul is denominated the *roe* (in our version; rendered *the beauty*) of *Israel*; the force and beauty of which expression will be felt, when it is recollected that in the East, to this day, the hind and roe, the hart and antelope, continue to be held in high estimation for the delicate elegance of their form, or their graceful agility of action. In 2 Sam. ii. 18. we are told that *Asahel was as light of foot as a wild roe*; — a mode of expression perfectly synonymous with the epithet of Ποδὸς ὡκυς Ἀχιλλεύς, *the swift-footed Achilles*, which is given by Homer to his hero, not fewer than thirty times in the course of the *Iliad*. David expressed his gratitude to God for making his feet *like hind's feet* for swiftness, and teaching his hands to war, so that a bow of steel was broken by his arms. (Psal. xviii. 33, 34.) The tribe of Benjamin could boast of a great number of brave men, who could use their right and left hands with equal dexterity (Judg. xx. 16. 1 Chron. xii. 2.), and who were eminent for their skill in the use of the bow and the sling. The *men of war*, out of the tribe of Gad, who came to David when persecuted by Saul, are described as being *men of might, fit for the battle, that could handle shield and buckler, whose faces were like the faces of lions, and who were as swift as the roes upon the mountains*. (1 Chron. xii. 8.)

VI. The Hebrews do not appear to have had any peculiar military habit. As the flowing dress which they ordinarily wore, would have impeded their movements, they girt it closely around them, when preparing for battle, and loosened it on their return. (2 Sam. xx. 8. 1 Kings xx. 11.) They used the same arms as the neighbouring nations, both defensive and offensive, and these were made either of iron or of brass, principally of the latter metal. In the Scriptures we read of brazen shields, helmets, and bows; the helmet, greaves, and target of the gigantic Goliath were all of brass, which was the metal chiefly used by the ancient Greeks.¹ The national museums of most countries contain abundant specimens of brazen arms, which have been rescued from the destroying hand of time. Originally, every man provided his own arms: but after the establishment of the monarchy, depôts were formed, whence they were distributed to the men as occasion required. (2 Chron. xi. 12. xxvi. 14, 15.)

Of the *Defensive Arms* of the Hebrews, the following were the most remarkable, viz.

1. The *Helmet* כִּיבֵּץ (κοβαν), for covering and defending the head. This was a part of the military provision made by Uzziah for his vast army (2 Chron. xxvi. 14.): and long before the time of that king, the helmets of Saul and of the Philistine champion were of brass. (1 Sam. xvii. 38. 5.) This military cap was also worn by the Persians, Ethiopians, and Lybians (Ezek. xxxviii. 5.),

¹ Calmet, in his elaborate *Dissertation sur la Milice des Anciens Hébreux* (Comment. tom. iii. p. 529.) has collected numerous examples from Homer, Hesiod, Virgil, and various other classic writers, in which brazen arms and armour are mentioned.

and by the troops which Antiochus sent against Judas Maccabeus. (1 Macc. vi. 35.)

2. The *Breast-plate* or *Corslet*, שריון (*shirion*), was another piece of defensive armour. Goliath, and the soldiers of Antiochus (1 Sam. xvii. 5. 1 Macc. vi. 35.) were accoutred with this defence, which, in our authorised translation, is variously rendered *habergeon*, *coat of mail*, and *brigandine*. (1 Sam. xvii. 38. 2 Chron. xxvi. 14. Isa. lix. 17. Jer. xlvi. 4.) Between the joints of his *harness* (as it is termed in 1 Kings xxii. 34.), the profligate Ahab was mortally wounded by an arrow shot at a venture. From these various renderings of the original word, it should seem that this piece of armour covered both the back and breast, but principally the latter. The corslets were made of various materials: sometimes they were made of flax or cotton, woven very thick, or of a kind of woollen felt: others again were made of iron or brazen scales, or laminæ, laid one over another like the scales of a fish; others were properly what we call coats of mail; and others were composed of two pieces of iron or brass, which protected the back and breast. All these kinds of corslets are mentioned in the Scriptures. Goliath's *coat of mail* (1 Sam. xvii. 5.) was literally, a *corslet of scales*, that is; composed of numerous laminæ of brass, crossing each other. It was called by Virgil and other Latin writers *squama lorica*.¹ Similar corslets were worn by the Persians and other nations. The breast-plate worn by the unhappy Saul, when he perished in battle, is supposed to have been of flax, or cotton, woven very close and thick. (2 Sam. i. 9. marginal rendering.)

3. The *Shield* defended the whole body during the battle. It was of various forms, and made of wood covered with tough hides, or of brass, and sometimes was overlaid with gold. (1 Kings x. 16, 17. xiv. 26, 27.) Two sorts are mentioned in the Scriptures, viz. The זננה (*tsinnah*) great shield or buckler, and the מגן (*magén*) or smaller shield. It was much used by the Jews, Babylonians, Chaldæans, Assyrians, and Egyptians. David, who was a great warrior, often mentions a shield and buckler, in his divine poems, to signify that defence and protection of heaven which he expected and experienced, and in which he reposed all his trust. (Psal. v. 12.) And when he says, *God will with favour compass the righteous as with a shield*, he seems to allude to the use of the great shield *tsinnah* (which is the word he uses) with which they covered and defended their whole bodies. King Solomon caused two different sorts of shields to be made, viz. the *tsinnah* (which answers to clypeus among the Latins), such a large shield as the infantry wore, and the *maginnim* or *scuta*, which were used by the horsemen, and were of a much less size. (2 Chron. ix. 15, 16.) The former of these are translated *targets*, and are double in weight to the other. The Philistines came into the field with this weapon: so we find their formidable champion was appointed. (1 Sam. xvii. 7.) One

¹ Æneid, lib. ix. 707.

bearing a shield went before him, whose proper duty it was to carry this and some other weapons, with which to furnish his master upon occasion.

A shield-bearer was an office among the Jews as well as the Philistines, for David when he first went to court was made king Saul's armour-bearer (1 Sam. xvi. 21.), and Jonathan had a young man who bore his armour before him. (1 Sam. xiv. 1.) Besides this tsinnah, or great massy shield, Goliath was furnished with a less one (1 Sam. xvii. 6. and 45.), which is not expressed by one of the forementioned words, but is called *cidon*, which we render a target in one place and a shield in another, and was of a different nature from the common shields. He seems not only to have held it in his hand when he had occasion to use it, but could also at other times conveniently hang it about his neck and turn it behind, on which account it is added, that it was between his shoulders. The loss of the shield in fight, was excessively resented by the Jewish warriors, as well as lamented by them, for it was a signal ingredient of the public mourning, that *the shield of the mighty was vilely cast away*. (2 Sam. i. 21.) David, a man of arms, who composed the beautiful elegy on the death of Saul related in 2 Sam. i. 19—27., was sensible how disgraceful a thing it was for soldiers to quit their shields in the field, yet this was the deplorable case of the Jewish soldiers in that unhappy engagement with the Philistines (1 Sam. xxxi. 7.), they fled away and left their shields behind them; this vile and dishonourable casting away of that principal armour is the deserved subject of this lofty poet's lamentation.

But these honourable sentiments were not confined to the Jews. We find them prevailing among most other antient nations, who considered it infamous to cast away or lose their shield. With the Greeks it was a capital crime, and punished with death. The Lacedemonian women, it is well known, in order to excite the courage of their sons, used to deliver to them their fathers' shields, with this short address: "This shield thy father always preserved; do thou preserve it also, or perish." Alluding to these sentiments, Saint Paul, when exhorting the Hebrew Christians to steadfastness in the faith of the Gospel, urges them not to *cast away their confidence*, their confession of faith, which *hath great recompence of reward*, no less than the approbation of God, the peace which passeth all understanding *here*, and the glories of heaven, as their *eternal portion*. (Heb. x. 35.)

It may be further observed, that they used to oil, scour, and polish their shields, (as indeed it was the custom to be equally careful of their other armour,) as may be inferred from the prophet's expressions of *furbishing the spears and making bright the arrows* (Jer. xlvi. 4. and li. 11.), but more especially their shields; which weapons they highly valued, and upon which they generally engraved their names and warlike deeds, if they achieved any. These weapons were carefully polished with oil, and made

exceedingly bright ; whence two places of Scripture may receive some light : the former occurs in the chapter before cited, where it is said, *the shield of the mighty is vilely cast away, the shield of Saul, as if it had not been anointed with oil.* For so the latter clause may be understood to refer to the shield and not to Saul, and the Hebrew text will bear this version. The meaning then is, that the shields were cast away and trodden under foot, as if they had not been made bright with oil. And that other passage of the prophet, *anoint the shield* (Isa. xxi. 5.), is a plain reference to this antient custom of polishing their shields with oil, and therefore the import of these words is this, *furbish and make ready that weapon, and prepare for battle* : it may be further observed, that as they anointed their shields to give them a brightness and lustre, so they covered them with a case when they had them not in use, in order to preserve them from being rusty and soiled ; hence we read of *uncovering the shield*, which signifies preparing for war, and having that weapon especially in readiness. (Isa. xxii. 6.)

4. Another defensive provision in war, was the *Military Girdle*, which was for a double purpose : first, in order to wear the sword, which hung, as it does ~~this~~ day, at the soldier's girdle or belt. (1 Sam. xvii. 39.) Secondly, it was necessary to gird their clothes and armour together, and thus David girded his sword upon his armour. To gird and to arm are synonymous words in Scripture ; for those who are said to be able to put on armour, are, according to the Hebrew and the Septuagint, girt with a girdle, and hence comes the expression of girding to the battle. (1 Kings xx. 11. Isa. viii. 9. 2 Sam. xxii. 40. 1 Sam. xviii. 4.) There is express mention of this military girdle, where it is recorded, that Jonathan, to assure David of his entire love and friendship by some visible pledges, stripped himself not only of his usual garments, but his military habiliments, his sword, bow, and girdle, and gave them to David.

5. *Boots or Greaves*, were part of the antient defensive harness, because it was the custom to cast certain *εμποδιαι*, impediments, (so called because they entangle the feet, afterwards known by the name of gall-traps, which since, in heraldry, are corruptly called call-trops) in the way before the enemy : the military boot or shoe was therefore necessary to guard the legs and feet from the iron stakes placed in the way to gall and wound them ; and thus we are enabled to account for Goliath's greaves of brass which were upon his legs.

VII. The *Offensive Weapons* were of two sorts, viz. such as were employed when they came to a close engagement : and those with which they annoyed the enemy at a distance. Of the former description were the sword and the battle-axe.

1. The *Sword* is the most antient weapon of offence mentioned in the Bible. With it Jacob's sons treacherously assassinated the Shechemites. (Gen. xxxiv. 25.) It was worn on the thigh (Psal. xlv. 3. ~~Exod. xxxii. 27.~~), and it should seem, on the left thigh ; for it

is particularly mentioned that Ehud, a Benjamite, put a dagger or short sword under his garments on his right thigh. (Judg. iii. 16.) There appear to have been two kinds of swords in use, a larger one with one edge, which is called in Hebrew the *mouth* of the sword (Josh. vi. 21.); and a shorter one with two edges, like that of Ehud. The modern Arabs, it is well known, wear a sabre on one side, and a *cangiar* or dagger in their girdles.

2. Of the *Battle-axe* we have no description in the sacred volume; it seems to have been a most powerful weapon in the hands of cavalry, from the allusion made to it by Jeremiah. *Thou art my battle-axe and weapons of war; for with thee will I break in pieces the nations, and with thee will I destroy kingdoms: and with thee will I break in pieces the horse and his rider, and with thee will I break in pieces the chariot and his rider.* (Jer. li. 20, 21.)

The other offensive weapons for annoying the enemy at a distance, were the spear or javelin, the sling, and the bow and arrow.

3. The *Spear* or *Javelin*, as the words רֶמֶחַ (ROMACH), and הַנֵּיט (CHANITH), are variously rendered in Numb. xxv. 7. 1 Sam. xiii. 19. and Jer. xlv. 4.), were of different kinds, according to their length or make. Some of them might be thrown or darted (1 Sam. xviii. 11.); others were a kind of *long swords* (Numb. xxv. 8.); and it appears from 2 Sam. ii. 23. that *some* of them were pointed at both ends. When armies were encamped, the spear of the general or commander-in-chief was stuck into the ground at his head.¹

4. *Slings* are enumerated among the military stores collected by Uzziah. (2 Chron. xxvi. 14.) In the use of the sling, David eminently excelled, and slew Goliath with a stone from one. The Benjaminites were celebrated in battle because they had attained to a great skill and accuracy in handling this weapon; *they could sling stones to a hair's breadth, and not miss* (Judg. xx. 16.); and where it is said that they were left-handed, it should rather be rendered ambidexters, for we are told, they could use *both the right hand and the left* (1 Chron. xii. 2.); that is, they did not constantly use their right hand as others did, when they shot arrows or slung stones, but they were so expert in their military exercises, that they could perform them with their left hand as well as with their right.

5. *Bows* and *Arrows* are of great antiquity: indeed, no weapon is mentioned so early. Thus Isaac said to Esau, *take thy weapons, thy quiver and thy bow* (Gen. xxvii. 3.); though it is true, these are not spoken of as used in war, but in hunting, and so they are supposed and implied before this; where it is said of Ishmael, that he became an archer, he used bows and arrows in shooting of wild beasts. (Gen. xxi. 20.) This afterwards became so useful a weapon, that care was taken to train up the Hebrew youth to it betimes. When David had in a solemn manner lamented the death of king Saul, he gave orders for teaching *the young men the use of the bow*

¹ See p. 194. *supra*, for examples of this custom.

(1 Sam. i. 18.), that they might be as expert as the Philistines, by whose bows and arrows Saul and his army were slain. These were part of the military ammunition (for in those times bows were used instead of guns, and arrows supplied the place of powder and ball). From the book of Job (xx. 24.) it may be collected, that the military bow was made of steel, and consequently was very stiff and hard to bend, on which account they used their foot in bending their bows; and therefore when the prophets speak of *treading the bow*, and of *bows trodden*, they are to be understood of *bows bent*, as our translators rightly render it (Jer. l. 14. Isa. v. 28. xxi. 15.); but the Hebrew word which is used in these places, signifies *to tread upon*. This weapon was thought so necessary in war, that it is called *the bow of war* or the *battle-bow*. (Zech. ix. 10. x. 4.)

VIII. Many of the cities of Palestine, being erected on eminences, were fortified by nature; but most frequently they were surrounded with a lofty wall, either single or double (Deut. xxviii. 52. 2 Chron. xxxiii. 14. Isa. xxii. 11.); on which were erected towers or bulwarks. (2 Chron. xiv. 7. xxvi. 9. Psal. xlviii. 13.) These towers were furnished with machines, from which the besieged could discharge arrows and great stones. (2 Chron. xxvi. 15.) It was also usual to erect towers on the confines of a country, to repress the incursions of troublesome neighbours, and which also served as occasional places of refuge. The tower of Peniel (Judg. viii. 9. 17.), and those erected by Uzziah (2 Chron. xxvi. 10.), appear to have been of this description: and similar towers were afterwards erected by the crusaders.¹ When the Israelites were about to besiege a city, they dug trenches, drew a line of circumvallation, erected ramparts, built forts against it, and cast a mount against it: they also set the camp against it, and set battering rams against it round about. (2 Sam. xx. 15. Lam. ii. 8. Ezek. iv. 2.) These engines of *shot*, as our margin renders it in the prophecy of Jeremiah (vi. 6.), in all probability, resembled in some measure the balistæ and catapultæ among the Romans; which were used for throwing stones and arrows, and antiently served instead of mortars and carcasses. Further, in order to give notice of an approaching enemy, and to bring the dispersed inhabitants of the country together, they used to set up beacons on the tops of mountains, as a proper alarm upon those occasions.

Such were the various instruments of offence and defence in use among the antient Israelites. Sometimes, however, they were very badly provided with military weapons: for, after the Philistines had gained many considerable advantages over them, and in effect subdued their country, they took care that no smith should be left throughout the land of Israel, to prevent them from making swords and spears; so that the Israelites were obliged to go down to the Philistines whenever they had occasion to sharpen their instruments of husbandry. (1 Sam. xiii. 19, 20, 22.) Long before the reign of

¹ Har. Observations, vol. iii. pp. 415—418. 425—428.

Saul we read that there *was not a shield or spear among forty thousand in Israel* (Judg. v. 8); though it is probable that they had other military weapons which are not mentioned. After Nebuchadnezzar had captured Jerusalem, he adopted the policy of the Philistines, and took all the craftsmen and smiths with him to Babylon, that the poorest of the people, whom he had left behind, might be in no condition to rebel. (2 Kings xxiv. 14.)

It was an antient custom to *shoot an arrow or cast a spear* into the country which an army intended to invade. As soon as Alexander had arrived on the coasts of Ionia, he threw a dart into the country of the Persians.¹ The throwing of a dart was considered as an emblem of the commencement of hostilities among the Romans.² Some such custom as this appears to have obtained among the eastern people: and to this the prophet Elisha alluded when he termed the arrow shot by the king of Israel, *the arrow of deliverance* from Syria (2 Kings xiii. 17.); meaning that, as surely as that arrow was shot towards the lands which had been conquered from the Israelites by the Syrians, so surely should those lands be reconquered and restored to Israel.

IX. Previously to undertaking a war, the heathens consulted their oracles, soothsayers, and magicians; and after their example, Saul, when forsaken by God, had recourse to a witch to know the result of the impending battle (1 Sam. xxviii. 7.): they also had recourse to divination by arrows, and inspection of the livers of slaughtered victims. (Ezek. xxi. 21.) The Israelites, to whom these things were prohibited, formerly consulted the urim and thummim, or the sacred lot. (Judg. i. 1. xx. 27, 28.) After the establishment of the monarchy, the kings, as they were piously or impiously disposed, consulted the prophets of the Lord or the false prophets, the latter of whom (as it was their interest) failed not to persuade them that they should succeed. (1 Kings xxii. 6—13. 2 Kings xix. 2. 20.) Their expeditions were generally undertaken in the spring (2 Sam. xi. 1.), and carried on through the summer. Previously to the engagement, the combatants anointed their shields, and took food that their strength might not fail them. (Isa. xxi. 5. Jer. xlv. 3, 4.) Of the precise mode in which the Jewish armies were drawn up, the Scriptures give us no information: but, as the art of war was then very imperfect, much reliance was placed in the multitude of combatants,—a notion, the fallacy of which is exposed in Psal. xxxiii. 16.

From the time of Moses to that of Solomon, the ark of the covenant was present in the camp, the symbol of the divine presence, and an incitement to valiant achievements. It was taken by the Philistines in the time of the high priest Eli (1 Sam. iv. 11.), but subsequently restored. In like manner the Philistines carried their deities into the field of battle (1 Chron. xiv. 12.); and it appears

¹ Justin, Hist. Philipp. lib. ii.

² Livy, lib. i. c. 32. Other instances from the Roman History may be seen in Adam's Roman Antiquities, p. 362.

that Jeroboam and the Israelites of the ten tribes had their golden calves with them in the field. (2 Chron. xiii. 8.) Before they engaged in battle, the law of Moses appointed two priests to blow with two silver trumpets (Numb. x. 9.) which are described by Josephus¹ to have been a cubit long, and narrow like a pipe, but wider, as ours are, at the bottom; no more than two were at first ordered for present use, but more were afterwards made when the priests and the people were increased. There were others called trumpets of rams' horns (Josh. vi. 4.) probably from their shape, which were used in war, to incite the soldiers to fight. These instruments were blown to call the people to the sanctuary to pay their devotion, and pray to God before they engaged; and they were sounded with a particular blast, that they might know the meaning of the summons: then *the anointed for the war*, going from one battalion to another, was to exhort the soldiers to fight valiantly. (Deut. xx. 2.) The rabbins² have a conceit, that the Romans learnt both the form of encamping, out of the law of Moses, and also to make orations to their armies before they went to fight; but it is more reasonable to think that they taught those who were leaders of others, to encourage them to follow their example. There were officers whose duty it was to make proclamation, that those whose business it was, should make sufficient provision for the army before they marched; and every tenth man was appointed for that purpose. (Josh. i. 10, 11. Judg. xx. 10.) In later times the kings themselves addressed their armies (2 Chron. xiii. 4—12 xx. 21.), and afterwards the Maccabean generals. (1 Macc. iv. 8—11.) Sometimes they advanced to battle singing hymns (2 Chron. xx. 21, 22.); and the signal was given by the priests sounding the trumpets. (Numb. x. 9. Judg. vi. 34. 2 Chron. xiii. 14. 1 Macc. iii. 54. iv. 13.) It should seem that a notion prevailed among the antient idolatrous nations of the East, of the efficacy of devoting an enemy to destruction. Under this persuasion Balak engaged Balaam to curse the Israelites because they were too mighty for him (Numb. xxii. 6.); and Goliath cursed David by his gods. (1 Sam. xvii. 43.) The Romans in later times had a peculiar form of evoking or calling out the gods, under whose protection a place was supposed to be, and also of devoting the people, which is fully described by Macrobius³: and many accounts are related in the Hindoo puranus of kings employing sages to curse their enemies when too powerful for them.

X. The onset of the battle, after the custom of the orientals, was very violent (Numb. xxiii. 24. xxiv. 8, 9.), and was made with a great shout. (Exod. xxxii. 17. 1 Samuel xvii. 20. 52. 2 Chron. xiii. 15. Jer. l. 42.) The same practice obtained in the age of the Maccabees (1 Macc. iii. 54.), as it does to this day among the Cossacks, Tartars, and Turks. All the wars, in the earliest times, were carried on with great cruelty and ferocity; of

¹ Antiq. lib. iii. c. 11.

² Saturnalia, lib. iii. c. 9.

³ Misch. Som. c. 8.

which we may see instances in Judg. viii. 7. 16. 2 Kings iii. 27. viii. 12. xv. 16. 2 Chron. xxv. 12. Amos. i. 3. 13. and Psal. cxxxvii. 8, 9. Yet the kings of Israel were distinguished for their humanity and lenity towards their enemies. (1 Kings xx. 31. 2 Kings vi. 21—23. 2 Chron. xxviii. 8—15.) When the victory was decided, the bodies of the slain were interred. (1 Kings xi. 15. 2 Sam. ii. 32. xxi. 14. Ezek. xxxix. 11, 12. 2 Macc. xii. 39.) Sometimes, however, the heads of the slain were cut off, and deposited in heaps at the palace gate (2 Kings x. 7, 8.), as is frequently done to this day in Turkey, and in Persia¹; and when the conquerors were irritated at the obstinacy with which a city was defended, they refused the rites of burial to the dead, whose bodies were cast out, a prey to carnivorous birds and beasts. This barbarity is feelingly deplored by the Psalmist. (lxxix. 1—3.) And on some occasions the remains of the slain were treated with every mark of indignity. Thus the Philistines cut off the head of Saul, and stripped off his armour, which they put in the house of their deity, Ashtaroath, or Astarte; and they fastened his body and the bodies of his sons to the wall of Beth-shan; whence they were soon taken by the brave inhabitants of Jabesh Gilead. (1 Sam. xxxi. 9—12.) A heap of stones was raised over the grave of princes, as in the case of Absalom. (2 Sam. xviii. 17.) The daily diminishing cairn of pebble-stones, situated about two miles from the lake of Grasmere, in Cumberland, and known by the appellation of *Dunmail Raise-Stones*, was raised in a like manner to commemorate the name and defeat of Dunmail, a petty king of Cumbria, A. D. 945 or 946, by the Anglo-Saxon monarch Edmund I.

When a city was taken, after being rased to the foundation, it was sometimes sowed with salt, and ploughed up, in token of perpetual desolation. In this manner Abimelech, after putting the inhabitants of Shechem to the sword, levelled it with the ground, and sowed it with salt: and thus many centuries after, the emperor Frederick Barbarossa (A. D. 1163) irritated at the long and strenuous defence made by the besieged inhabitants of Milan, on capturing that city, abandoned it to pillage, and sparing nothing but the churches, ordered it to be entirely rased to the ground, which was ploughed and sown with salt, in memory of its rebellion.² The prophet Micah (iii. 12.) foretold that Jerusalem should be ploughed as a field, and his prediction (as we have seen in another part of this work) was most literally fulfilled after Jerusalem was taken by the Roman army under Titus. It was not unusual in remote antiquity to pronounce a curse upon those who should rebuild a destroyed city. Thus Joshua denounced a curse upon the man who should rebuild Jericho (Josh. vi. 26.), the fulfilment of which is recorded in 1 Kings xvi. 34. In like manner Cræsus uttered a curse on him who should rebuild the walls of

¹ Morier's Second Journey, p. 186.

² Modern Universal History, vol. xxvi., p. 11. 8vo. edit.

Sidene which he had destroyed; and the Romans also upon him who should rebuild the city of Carthage.¹

Various indignities and cruelties were inflicted on those who had the misfortune to be taken captive. On some occasions particular districts were marked out for destruction. (2 Sam. viii. 2.) Of those whose lives were spared, the victors set their feet upon the necks (Josh. x. 24.), or mutilated their persons² (Judg. i. 7. 2 Sam. iv. 12. Ezek. xxiii. 25.³), or imposed upon them the severest and most laborious occupations. (2 Sam. xii. 31.) It was the barbarous custom of the conquerors of those times, to strip their captives naked, and to make them travel in that condition, exposed to the inclemency of the weather, and, which was worst of all, to the intolerable 'heat of the sun.' Nor were women, as appears from Isa. iii. 17., exempted from this treatment. To them this was the height of indignity, as well as of cruelty, especially to those described by the prophets, who had indulged themselves in all manner of delicacies of living, and all the superfluities of ornamental dress; and even whose faces had hardly ever been exposed to the sight of men. This is always mentioned as the hardest part of the lot of captives. Nahum (iii. 5, 6.) denouncing the fate of Nineveh, paints it in very strong colours.⁴ Women and children were also exposed to treatment at which humanity shudders. (Zech. xiv. 2. Esth. iii. 13. 2 Kings viii. 12. Psal cxxxvii. 9. Isa. xiii. 16, 18. 2 Kings xv. 16. Hos. xiii. 16. Amos i. 13.) And whole nations were carried into captivity, and transplanted to distant countries: this was the

¹ Burder's Oriental Literature, vol. i. p. 301.

² That the cutting off the thumbs and toes of captured enemies was an ancient mode of treating them, we learn from Ælian (Var. Hist. lib. ii. c. 9.), who tells us, that the Athenians, at the instigation of Cleon, son of Cleænatus, made a decree that all the inhabitants of the island of Ægina should have the thumb cut off from the right hand, so that they might ever after be disabled from holding a spear, yet might handle an oar." It was a custom among those Romans who disliked a military life, to cut off their own thumbs, that they might not be capable of serving in the army. Sometimes the parents cut off the thumbs of their children, that they might not be called into the army. According to Suetonius, a Roman knight, who had cut off the thumbs of his two sons, to prevent them from being called to a military life, was, by the order of Augustus, publicly sold, both he and his property. *Equitem Romanum, quod duobus filiis adolescentibus, causa detractandi sacramenti, pollices amputasset, ipsum bonaque subiecit hastæ.* Vit. August. c. 24. Calmet remarks, that the Italian language has preserved a term, *polltrone*, which signifies one whose thumb is cut off, to designate a soldier destitute of courage. Burder's Oriental Literature, vol. i. p. 310.

³ Ezek. xxiii. 25. *They shall take away thy nose and thine ears.* This cruelty is still practised under some of the despotic governments of the eastern countries. One of the most recent instances is thus related by Messrs. Waddington and Hanbury, during their visit to some parts of Ethiopia.—"Our servants, in their expedition into the yillage, found only an old woman alive, with her ears off. The pasha buys human ears at fifty piastres apiece, which leads to a thousand unnecessary cruelties, and barbarises the system of warfare; but enables his highness to collect a large stock of ears, which he sends down to his father, as proofs of his successes." *Journal of a Visit, &c.* p. 118. (London, 1822. 4to.)—Similar instances of this kind of cruelty may be seen in Dodwell's Classical Tour through Greece, vol. i. p. 20. Sir James Malcolm's Hist. of Persia, vol. i. p. 555.; and Burckhardt's Travels in Nubia, p. 25.

⁴ Bp. Lowth's Isaiah, vol. ii. p. 45.

case with the Jews, and instances of similar conduct are not wanting in the modern history of the East. In some cases, indeed, the conquered nations were merely made tributaries, as the Moabites and Syrians were by David (2 Sam. viii. 4. 6.): but this was considered a great ignominy, and was a source of reproach to the idol-deities of the countries which were thus subjected. (2 Kings xix. 12, 13.) Still further to shew their absolute superiority, the victorious sovereigns used to change the names of the monarchs whom they subdued. Thus we find the king of Babylon changing the name of Mattaniah into Zedekiah, when he constituted him king of Judah. (2 Kings xxiv. 17.) Archbishop Usher remarks, that the king of Egypt gave to Eliakim the name of Jehoiakim, (2 Chron. xxxvi. 4.) thereby to testify that he ascribed his victory over the Babylonians to Jehovah the God of Israel, by whose excitation, as he pretended (2 Chron. xxxv. 21, 22.), he undertook the expedition. Nebuchadnezzar also ordered his eunuch to change the name of Daniel, who afterwards was called Belteshazzar; and the three companions of Daniel, whose names formerly were Hananiah, Mishael, and Azariah, he called Shadrach, Meshach, and Abednego. (Dan. i. 7.) It was likewise a custom among the heathens to carry in triumph the images of the gods of such nations as they had vanquished: Isaiah prophesies of Cyrus, that in this manner he would treat the gods of Babylon, when he says, *Bel boweth, Nebo stoopeth, their idols were upon the beasts, and upon the cattle, and themselves have gone into captivity.* (Isa. xlv. 1, 2.) Daniel foretells that the gods of the Syrians, with their princes, should be carried captive into Egypt (Dan. xi. 8.): and similar predictions are to be met with in Jeremiah (xlviii. 7.) and in Amos. (i. 15.)

XI. On their return home, the victors were received with every demonstration of joy. The women preceded them with instruments of music, singing and dancing. In this manner Miriam and the women of Israel joined in chorus with the men, in the song of victory which Moses composed on occasion of the overthrow of Pharaoh and his Egyptian host in the Red Sea, and which they accompanied with timbrels and dances. (Exod. xv. 1—21.) Thus, also, Jephthah was hailed by his daughter, on his return from discomfiting the children of Ammon (Judg. xi. 34.); and Saul and David were greeted in like manner, on their return from the defeat of the Philistines. *The women came out of all the cities of Israel, singing and dancing, to meet king Saul, with tabrets, with joy, and with instruments of music. And the women answered one another as they played, and said, Saul hath slain his thousands, and David his ten thousands!* (1 Sam. xviii. 7, 8.) The victorious army of Jehoshaphat, the pious king of Judah, long afterwards, returned, every man of Judah and Jerusalem with the king at their head, to go again to Jerusalem with joy; for the Lord had made them to rejoice over their enemies. *And they came to Jerusalem with psalteries and harps, and trumpets unto the house of the Lord.* (2 Chron. xx. 27, 28.) The

same custom still obtains in India and in Turkey.¹ In further commemoration of signal victories, it was a common practice, both among the antient heathen nations and the Jews, to hang up the arms that were taken from their enemies in their temples. Thus we find, that the sword with which David cut off Goliath's head, being dedicated to the Lord, was kept as a memorial of his victory, and of the Israelites' deliverance, and was deposited in the tabernacle; for we find that when David came to Abimelech at Nob, where the tabernacle was, Abimelech acknowledged it was there, and delivered it to David. (1 Sam. xxi. 8, 9.) For when occasions of state required it, it was no unusual thing to take such trophies down, and employ them in the public service. Thus when Joash was crowned king of Judah, Jehoiada, the high priest, (who had religiously educated him,) *delivered to the captains of hundreds spears, and bucklers and shields, that had been king David's, which were in the house of God.* (2 Chron. xxiii. 9.)

XII. By the law of Moses (Levit. xi. 32, 33.) the whole army that went out to war were to stay without, seven days before they were admitted into the camp, and such as had had their hands in blood, or had touched a dead body, though killed by another, were to be purified on the third and on the seventh day by the water of separation. All spoil of garments, or other things that they had taken, were to be purified in the same manner, or to be washed in running water, as the method was in other cases. All sorts of metals had, besides sprinkling with the water of separation, a purification by fire, and what would not bear the fire passed through the water before it could be applied to use.

In the distribution of the spoil, the king antiently had the tenth part of what was taken. Thus Abraham gave a tenth to Melchisedec king of Salem. (Gen. xiv. 20.) And if any article of peculiar beauty or value were found among the spoil, it seems to have been reserved for the commander-in-chief. To this Deborah alludes in her triumphal ode. (Judg. v. 30.) After the establishment of the monarchy, the rabbinical writers say (but upon what authority it is impossible now to ascertain) that the king had all the gold, silver, and other precious articles, besides one half of the rest of the spoil, which was divided between him and the people. In the case of the Midianitish war (Numb. xxxi. 27.), the whole of the spoil was, by divine appointment, divided into two parts: the army that won the victory had one, and those that staid at home had the other, because it was a common cause in which they engaged, and the rest were as ready to fight as those that went out to battle. This division was by a special direction, but was not the rule in after ages; for, after the general had taken what he pleased for himself, the rest was divided among the soldiers, as well those who kept the baggage, or were disabled by wounds or weariness, as those who were engaged in the fight, but the people had no

¹ Forbes's *Oriental Memoirs*, vol. ii. p. 295. Lady Mary Wortley Montague's *Letters*, vol. i. p. 127.

share; and this was ordained, as a statute to be observed throughout their generations (1 Sam. xxx. 24.): but in the time of the Maccabees the Jewish army thought fit to recede from the strictness of this military law, for when they had obtained a victory over Nicanor, under the conduct of Judas, they divided *among themselves many spoils, and made the maimed, orphans, widows, yea, and the aged also, equal in spoils with themselves.* (2 Macc. viii. 28. 30.) In the Midianitish war, after the distribution of the spoils among the army and the people, there was another division made for the service of the priesthood, and the Levitical ministry. (Numb. xxxi. 28—30.) The priests, out of the share that fell to the army, were allotted one out of five hundred of all women and children, and cattle that were taken; and the Levites, from the part that fell to the people, received one out of fifty, so that the priests had just a tenth part of what was allowed to the Levites, as they had a tenth part of the Levitical tithes, which was paid them for their constant support; but whether this was the practice in future wars is uncertain. Sometimes all the spoils were, by divine appointment, ordered to be destroyed; and there is an instance in the siege of Jericho, when all the silver and the gold (except the gold and the silver of their images, which were to be consumed utterly), and vessels of brass and iron, were devoted to God, and appropriated to his service. They were to be brought into the treasury which was in the tabernacle, after they were purified by making them pass through the fire according to the law; the Jews conceive that these spoils (called in the Scripture the accursed thing on the account of their being devoted with a curse upon him who should take them for his own use) were given to God, because the city was taken upon the sabbath day. But in succeeding ages, it appears to be an established rule that the spoil was to be divided among the army actually engaged in battle; those who had the charge of the baggage (as already noticed) being considered entitled to an equal share with the rest. (1 Sam. xxx. 24.)

Besides a share of the spoil and the honours of a triumph, various military rewards were bestowed on those warriors who had pre-eminently distinguished themselves. Thus Saul promised to confer great riches on the man who should conquer Goliath, and further to give his daughter in marriage to him, and to exempt his father's house from all taxes in Israel. (1 Sam. xvii. 25.) How reluctantly the jealous monarch fulfilled his promise is well known. David promised the command in chief of all his forces to him who should first mount the walls of Jerusalem, and expel the Jebusites out of the city (2 Sam. v. 8. 1 Chron. xi. 6.); which honour was acquired by Joab. In the rebellion of Absalom against David, Joab replied to a man who told him that the prince was suspended in an oak, — *Why didst thou not smite him to the ground, and I would have given thee ten shekels of silver and a girdle?* 2 Sam. xviii. 11.) Jephthah was constituted *head and captain* over the Israelites beyond Jordan, for delivering them from the oppression of the Ammonites. (Judg. xi. 11. compared with xii. 7.)

After the return of the Jewish armies to their several homes, their military dress was laid aside. The militia, which had been raised for the occasion, was disbanded; their warlike instruments, with the exception of such as were private property, were delivered up as the property of the state, until some future war should call them forth (2 Chron. xi. 12.); and the soldiers themselves returned (like Cincinnatus) to the plough, and the other avocations of private life. To this suspension of their arms, the prophet Ezekiel alludes (xxvii. 10, 11.) when he says that *they of Persia, and of Lud, and of Phut, and of Arvad*, were in the Tyrian army *as men of war*, and *hanged their shields upon the walls of Tyre*. To the same custom also the bridegroom refers in the sacred idyls of Solomon (Song iv. 4.), when he compares the neck of his bride to *the tower of David builded for an armoury, whereon there hang a thousand bucklers, all shields of mighty men*.

SECTION II.

ALLUSIONS IN THE NEW TESTAMENT TO THE MILITARY DISCIPLINE AND TRIUMPHS OF THE ROMANS.

I. *Roman Military Officers mentioned in the New Testament.*—II. *Allusions to the Armour of the Romans.*—III. *To their Military Discipline.*—*Strict Subordination.*—*Rewards to Soldiers who had distinguished themselves.*—IV. *Allusions to the Roman Triumphs.*

I. AT the time the evangelists and apostles wrote, the Romans had extended their empire almost to the utmost boundaries of the then known world, principally by their unparalleled military discipline and heroic valour. Judæa was at this time subject to their sway, and their troops were stationed in different parts of that country.

We learn from Josephus, that the tower of Antonia, which overlooked the temple, was always garrisoned by a legion of soldiers; and that, on the side where it joined to the porticoes of the temple, there were *stairs* reaching to each portico, by which a company, band, or detachment descended, and kept guard (*κουστωδιαν*), in those porticoes, to prevent any tumult at the great festivals.¹ The commanding officer of this force is in the New Testament termed the *captain*, the *chief captain of the band*, and the *captain of the temple*. (John xviii. 3. 12. Mark xv. 6. Matt. xxvii. 27. 64, 65. Acts x. 1. xxi. 31, 32. 37—40. Acts iv. 1. and v. 24.) It was the Roman captain of this fort, whose name was Claudius Lysias, that rescued Paul when the Jews were beating him and intended to kill him. (Acts xxi. 31. xxii. 24. xxiii. 26.)

The allusions, in the New Testament, to the military discipline, armour, battles, sieges, and military honours of the Greeks, and

especially of the Romans, are very numerous; and the sacred writers have derived from them metaphors and expressions of singular propriety, elegance, and energy, for animating Christians to fortitude against temptations, and to constancy in the profession of their holy faith under all persecutions, and also for stimulating them to persevere unto the end, that they may receive those final honours and that immortal crown which await victorious piety.

II. In the following very striking and beautiful passage of St. Paul's Epistle to the Ephesians (vi. 11—17.), the various parts of the panoply-armour of the heavy troops among the Greeks and Romans (those who had to sustain the rudest assaults) are distinctly enumerated, and beautifully applied to those moral and spiritual weapons with which the believer ought to be fortified. *Put on the whole armour of God, that ye may be able to stand against the wiles of the devil. For we wrestle not against flesh and blood, but against principalities, against powers, against the rulers of the darkness of this world, against spiritual wickedness in high places. Wherefore, take unto you the whole armour of God, that ye may be able to withstand in the evil day, and having done¹ all to stand. Stand therefore, having your loins girt about with truth, and having on the breast-plate of righteousness: and your feet shod with the preparation of the gospel of peace; above all², taking the shield³ of faith wherewith you shall be able to quench all the fiery darts⁴ of the wicked, and take the*

¹ Ephes. vi. 13. Ἀπαντα κατεργασαμενοι. This verb frequently signifies to despatch a foe, totally to vanquish and subdue an adversary. So it should be translated in this place. Ὁν αὐτοχειρια κατεργασατο: Whom he despatched with his own hand. Dion. Halicarn. tom. i. p. 99. Oxon. 1704. Παντα πολεμια κατεργασαμενοι: Having quelled all hostilities. Idem, p. 885. Μεθ' ἧς ἡδη πολλους πολεμους κατεργασθε: By which you have vanquished many enemies. Polyænis Stratag. p. 421. Lugd. 1589. Πέρμας ἀβελους σιδηρω κατεργασαμεν. Idem, p. 599. Casaubon. Ταυρον αγριον—ταυς χειρσι μόναις κατεργασαμεν: He despatched a wild bull only with his hands. Appian. vol. i. p. 201. Amst. 1670. See also pp. 5. 291. 410. 531. Tollii. The word here used by the apostle has also this signification in Dion Cassius, Josephus, and Philo.

² Ἐπι παντι, after all, or besides all: it never signifies above all. Αὐτος δε χαλεπος ἐπι παντι διαβαιων: After all, he himself passed with difficulty. Plutarch, Cæsar. p. 1311. edit. Gr. Stephan. Αγωνα πρωτον την φαλαγγα, μετὰ ταυτα τους ιππεις, ἐπι παντι δε το σκευφορον: First, he led up the phalanx, next the cavalry, after all the baggage. Polybius, p. 664. Casaubon. Ἐπι παντι δε Ασσις εννεα και τεσσαρακοντα και μηνες δυο: After all, Assis reigned forty-nine years and two months. Josephus contra Apion. p. 445. Havercamp.

³ The shield here intended (Συρεος, is the scutum, or large oblong shield of the Romans, which was made of wood covered with hides, and derived its name from its resemblance to a door (θυρα). As faith is that Christian grace, by which all the others are preserved and rendered active, it is here properly represented under the figure of a shield; which covered and protected the whole body; and enables the believer to quench—to intercept, blunt, and extinguish, as on a shield—the fiery darts of the wicked one, that is, all those evil thoughts, and strong injections, as they are termed, which inflame the passions of the unrenewed, and excite the soul to acts of transgression.

⁴ Βελη πεπρωμενα. These dreadful weapons were frequently employed by the ancients. Πυρφορα τοξευματα. Appian. p. 329. Πυρφοροις οιστοις βαλλεσθαι. Thucydides, tom. ii. lib. xi. p. 202. Glasg.

Τοιους, αγριε δαιμον, εχεις απροσδοκαστους.

Oppian. Κυνηγ. lib. ii. ver. 255.

According to Ammianus Marcellinus (lib. xxiii. c. 4.) these fiery darts consisted of a hollowed reed, to the lower part of which, under the point or barb, was fastened a round receptacle, made of iron, for combustible materials, so that such an arrow had the form of

helmet¹ of salvation, and the sword of the Spirit, which is the word of God.

Having thus equipped the spiritual soldier with the divine panoply, the apostle proceeds to shew him how he is to use it: he therefore subjoins — *Praying always with all prayer and supplication in the Spirit, and watching thereunto with all perseverance.* The Greeks and other antient nations, we have already observed, offered up prayers before they went into the battle. Alluding to this, Saint Paul adds the exhortation to believers, *praying always* at all seasons and on all occasions, *with all prayer* (more correctly, *supplication* for what is good) and *deprecation* of evil; and *watching thereunto* — being always on their guard lest their spiritual enemies should surprise them — *with all perseverance*, being always intent on their object, and never losing sight of their danger or of their interest.²

In the Epistle to the Romans, the apostle, exhorting men to renounce those sins to which they had been long accustomed, and to enter upon a new and holy life, uses a beautiful similitude, borrowed from the custom of soldiers throwing off their ordinary habit in order to put on a suit of armour. *The night is far spent, the day is at hand: let us therefore CAST OFF the works of darkness, and let us PUT ON the ARMOUR of light.*³ (Rom. xiii. 12.) In another passage he represents, by a striking simile, in what manner the apostles were fortified against the opposition with which they were called to conflict in this world. *By the word of truth, by the power of God, by the ARMOUR of righteousness ON THE RIGHT HAND AND ON THE LEFT.* (2 Cor. vi. 7.)

III. It is well known that the strictest subordination and obedience were exacted of every Roman soldier. An allusion to this occurs in Matt. viii. 8, 9.; to understand which it is necessary to state a few particulars relative to the divisions of the Roman army. Their

a distaff. This was filled with burning naphtha; and when the arrow was shot from a slack bow, (for if discharged from a tight bow the fire went out,) it struck the enemies' ranks and remained infixed, the flame consuming whatever it met with; water poured on it increased its violence; there were no other means to extinguish it but by throwing earth upon it. Similar darts or arrows, which were twined round with tar and pitch, and set fire to, are described by Livy (lib. xxi. c. 8.), as having been made use of by the inhabitants of the city of Saguntum, when besieged by the Romans.

On the tops of the antient helmets, as well as in those now in use, is a crest or ridge, furnished with ornaments; some of the antient helmets had emblematic figures, and it is probable that Saint Paul, who in 1 Thess. v. 8. terms the helmet *the hope of salvation*, refers to such helmets as had on them the emblematic representation of hope. His meaning therefore is, that as the helmet defended the head from deadly blows, so the *hope of salvation* (of conquering every adversary, and of surmounting every difficulty, through Christ strengthening the Christian), built on the promises of God, will ward off, or preserve him from, the fatal effects of all temptations, from worldly terrors and evils, so that they shall not disorder the imagination or pervert the judgment, or cause men to desert the path of duty, to their final destruction.

¹ Dr. Chandler, Macknight, and A. Clarke, on Eph. vi. 11—17. In the fifth of Bishop Horne's Discourses (Works, vol. v. pp. 60—72.) the reader will find an admirable and animated exposition of the Christian armour.

² Ἀπαιτῶν τὴν ἡμέραν καὶ τὴν νύκτα καὶ ἐν παντί, ὡς ἐν πολεμῶν. Fulgentiaque
 ἡμερῶν καὶ νυκτῶν ἀνταγωνισθῶμεν, ἀναγκὴ γὰρ τοὺς
 πολεμῶν ἐναντίον ἡμῶν ἔσονται. Lucian, tom. ii. p. 256. edit. Gravii.

infantry were divided into three principal classes, the *Hastati*, the *Principes*, and the *Triarii*, each of which was composed of thirty *manipuli* or companies, and each manipulus contained two *centuries* or hundreds of men: over every company were placed two centurions, who however were very far from being *equal* in rank and honour though possessing the same office. The *triarii* and *principes* were esteemed the most honourable, and had their centurions elected *first*, and these took precedence of the centurions of the *Hastati*, who were elected *last*. The humble centurion, who besought the aid of the compassionate Redeemer, appears to have been of this last order. He was a *man under authority*, that is, of the *Principes* or *Triarii*, and had none *under* him but the hundred men, who appear to have been in a state of the strictest military subordination, as well as of loving subjection to him. *I am*, said the centurion, *a man under authority, having soldiers under me, and I say to this man, Go, and he goeth, and to another Come, and he cometh; and to my slave* (Τῷ δούλῳ μου), *Do this, and he doeth it*. The application of his argument, addressed to Christ, seems to be this:—If I, who am a person subject to the controul of others, yet have some so completely subject to myself, that I can say to one, *Come, and he cometh*, &c., how much more then canst thou accomplish whatsoever thou wilt, being under no controul, and having all things under thy command.¹

There are two striking passages in Arrian's Discourses of Epictetus, which greatly illustrate this speech of the centurion:—Speaking of the Saturnalia, he says,—“We agreed to play Agamemnon and Achilles. He who is appointed for Agamemnon says to me—‘Go to Achilles, and force away Briseis.’—I GO.—‘COME.’—*I come.*”² Again, discoursing on all things being under the divine inspection, he says:—“When God commands the plants to blossom, they bear blossoms. When he commands them to bear seed, they bear seed. When he commands them to bring forth fruit, they put forth their fruit. When he commands them to ripen, they grow ripe. When he commands them to fade and shed their leaves, and to remain inactive; and involved (or contracted) within themselves, they thus remain and are inactive.”³

Nor is the military subordination adverted to by the centurion, without its (almost verbal) parallel in modern times in the East:—Kirtee-Ranah, a captive Ghicorkha chief, who was marching to the British head-quarters—on being interrogated concerning the motives that induced him to quit his native land and enter into the service of the Rajah of Nepal,—replied in the following very impressive manner:—“My master, the rajah, sent me. He says to his people;—to one, ‘Go you to Gurchat;’ to another, ‘Go you to

¹ Dr. A. Clarke on Matt. viii. 9.

² Arrian's Epictetus, book i. c. 25. § 1. (Mrs. Carter's translation, vol. 5. p. 118.)

³ Ibid. book i. c. 14. Raphael's Analogies in Sacram. Signatum, ex Hieronymo, &c. vol. 1. pp. 222, 223.

*Cashmere, or to any distant part.*¹ — ‘*My Lord, thy slave OBEYS; it is DONE.*’—None ever inquires into the reason of an order of the rajah.”¹

In his Epistle to Timothy, who appears to have been greatly dejected and dispirited by the opposition he met with, St. Paul animates him to fortitude; and among other directions encourages him to ENDURE HARDSHIP as a good soldier of Jesus Christ (2 Tim. ii. 3.)—and what hardship a Roman soldier supported, the following passage in Josephus will abundantly evince. It is the most striking commentary upon this text that ever was written. “When they march out of their encampment, they advance in silence and in great decorum, each man keeping his proper rank just as in battle. Their infantry are armed with breast-plates and helmets, and they carry a sword on each side. The sword they wear on their left side is by far the longest, for that on the right is not above a span’s length. That select body of infantry, which forms part of the general’s life-guards, is armed with lances and bucklers, but the rest of the phalanx have a spear and a long shield, besides which they bear a saw and a basket, a spade and a hatchet; they also carry with them a cord, a sickle, a chain, and provisions for three days! so that a Roman foot-soldier is but very little different from a BEAST OF BURDEN.”²

According to a military custom, established in an early period of the commonwealth, every Roman soldier chose his favourite comrade; and by that tie of friendship all were mutually bound to share every danger with their fellows.³ Saint Paul, alluding to this practice, terms Epaphroditus his *companion in labour and fellow-soldier*. (Phil. ii. 25.) Further, it is well known that the Roman soldiers were not allowed to marry; by this prohibition the Roman providence, as much as possible, studying to keep their military disembarassed from the cares and distractions of secular life. To this law the apostle refers; *no one that warreth, ENTANGLETH HIMSELF WITH THE AFFAIRS OF THIS LIFE*; that he *may please him who hath chosen him to be a soldier*.⁴ (2 Tim. ii. 4.)

¹ Fraser’s Notes on the Hills at the foot of the Himala Mountains, p. 226. London, 1820. 4to.

² Josephus, De Bell. Jud. lib. iii. c. 5. § 5. The following particulars, collected from Roman authors, will confirm and illustrate the statements of Josephus:—“The load which a Roman soldier carried, is almost incredible” (Virg. Georg. iii. 346. Horat. Sat. ii. 10); victuals (*cibaria*) for fifteen days (Cic. Tusc. ii. 15, 16.), sometimes more (Liv. Epit. 57.), usually corn, as being lighter, sometimes dressed food (*coctus cibus* Liv. iii. 27.), utensils (*utensilia*, ib. 42.), a saw, a basket, a mattock, an axe, a hook, and leather thong, a chain, a pot, &c. (Liv. xxviii. 45. Horat. Epod. ix. 13.), stakes usually three or four, sometimes twelve (Liv. iii. 27.); the whole amounting to sixty pounds weight, besides arms: for a Roman soldier considered these not as a burden but as a part of himself (*arma membra militis ducebant*. Cic. Tusc. ii. 16.)—Adam’s Roman Antiquities, p. 377.

³ Livy, lib. vi. c. 39. Tacitus, Hist. lib. i. c. 18.—Murphy’s note, in his translation of Tacitus, vol. v. p. 356. 8vo. edit.

⁴ Τοῖς δὲ στρατοῦσι, ἐπειὶ οὐκ ἐδυνάτο ἐκ γὰρ τῶν νόμων ἔχειν. Dion Cassius, lib. lxxv. 1. Reimar. Tacitus, speaking of some Roman veterans, says:

The names of those who died or were cashiered for misconduct were expunged from the muster-roll. To this custom, probably, the following text alludes; in this view the similitude is very striking, *I will not blot out his NAME out of the BOOK of life.* (Rev. iii. 5.)¹

The triumphant advancement of the Christian religion through the world St. Paul compares to the irresistible progress of a victorious army, before which every fortified place, and all opposition, how formidable soever, yielded and fell. (2 Cor. x. 4.) *For the weapons of our warfare are not carnal, but mighty through God² to the pulling down of strong holds; casting down imaginations, and everything that exalteth itself against the knowledge of God, and bringing into captivity every thought to the obedience of Christ.³ Having spoiled principalities and powers, he made a shew of them openly, triumphing over them.*

By a very striking metaphor, taken from the pay of a soldier, he represents the wages with which SIN rewards those who fight under her banners, to be certain and inevitable death. The WAGES⁴ of SIN IS DEATH.

Our Lord in that wonderful prophecy of the destruction of Jerusalem accurately represents the Roman manner of besieging and taking towns,—which was by investing the place, digging a deep trench round it, and encompassing it with a strong wall, to prevent escape, and consume the inhabitants by famine. *The days shall come upon thee, that thine enemies shall cast a TRENCH about thee, and COMPASS thee ROUND, and keep thee in on every side: and shall lay thee even with the ground, and thy children within thee, and they shall not leave in thee one stone upon another; because thou knowest not the time of thy visitation.* (Luke xx. 42, 43.)

In expatiating upon the difficulties and distresses with which the first preachers of the Gospel conflicted, the apostle Paul in a strong figure compares their situation to that of an army pent up in a narrow place—*annoyed on every side*—but not totally precluded from an

Neque conjugii suscipiendis neque alendis liberis sucti. Taciti Annales, tom. ii. lib. xiv. cap. xxvii. p. 210. Dublin.

¹ It is however possible that this allusion may be drawn from civil life, in which case the meaning of the above-cited passage will be this:—As in states and cities, those who obtained freedom and fellowship were enrolled in the public registers, which enrolment was their title to the privileges of citizens; so the King of Heaven, of the New Jerusalem, engages to preserve in his register and enrolment, in the book of life, the names of those, who, like the faithful members of the church of Sardis, in a corrupted and supine society, shall preserve allegiance, and a faithful discharge of their Christian duties. He will own them as his fellow citizens, before men and angels. Compare Matt. xx. 32. Luke xii. 8. See also Psal. lxxix. 28. Ezek. xiii. 9. Exod. xxxiii. 33. Dan. xii. 1. Mal. iii. 16. Luke x. 20. Dr. V. Godhouse on the Apocalypse, p. 84.

² Δυνατα τω Θεω, exceeding powerful. Moses is called αστειος τω Θεω, exceeding beautiful. Acts viii. 20.

³ See the conquest of the Gospel and its triumph over idolatry in a very striking manner represented by Eusebius, lib. x. p. 468. Cantab.

⁴ Rom. vi. 23. Οψωνια, the pay of a soldier. Οψωνιον τη στρατεια, — κατενεγκαντες αργυριον; Bringing money to pay the army. Dion. Halicarn. tom. i. p. 568. Oxon. Λαβων οψωνια τε και τ' αλλα οσων εδει τη στρατεια. p. 587.

escape¹ — their condition to the last degree *perplexed* and *wretched*, yet not altogether *desperate* and *forlorn*. (2 Cor. iv. 8.) We are *troubled on every side*, yet not *distressed*: we are *perplexed*, but not in *despair*.

Once more, as among the other military honours and recompences, rich and splendid *crowns*², frequently of *gold*, were publicly bestowed upon the illustrious conqueror, and upon every man who, acting worthy the Roman name, had distinguished himself by his valour and his virtue — in allusion to *this* custom how beautiful and striking are those many passages of sacred Scripture, which represent Jesus Christ, before *angels* and the whole *assembled world*, acknowledging and applauding distinguished piety, and publicly conferring *crowns* of immortal glory upon *persevering* and *victorious* holiness. *Be thou faithful unto death: I will give thee a CROWN of life*. (Rev. ii. 10.) *Blessed is the man that endureth temptation; for when he is tried, he shall receive the CROWN of life* (James i. 12.); *which the Lord hath promised to them that love him. When the chief shepherd shall appear, ye shall receive a CROWN of glory that fadeth not away*. (1 Pet. v. 4.) *I have fought a good fight, I have finished my course, I have kept the faith: Henceforth there is laid up for me a CROWN of righteousness, which the Lord the righteous judge shall give me at that day; and not to me only, but unto ALL them also that love his appearing*. (2 Tim. iv. 8.)

IV. But the highest military honour that could be conferred in the Roman state was a *triumph*, or solemn procession, with which a victorious general and his army advanced through the city to the capitol; and which was the most grand and magnificent spectacle ever beheld in antient times. After a decisive battle gained, and the complete conquest of a kingdom, the most illustrious captives in war, kings, princes, and nobles, with their wives and children, to the perpetual infamy of this people, were, with the last dishonour and ignominy, led in fetters before the general's chariot, through the public streets of Rome: scaffolds being every where erected, the streets and public places crowded, and this barbarous and uncivilised nation all the while in the highest excess of joy, and in the full fruition of a spectacle that was a reproach to humanity. Nor was only the³ sovereign of large and opulent kingdoms, the magnani-

¹ Ἐν παντὶ ἐλθόμενοι ἀλλ' οὐ στενοχωρούμενοι.

² Στεφανοῦς ἐπὶ ταῖς νικαῖς συχρὺς — χρυσοῦς ἐλάβε: He received several crowns of gold on account of his victories. — Dion. Cassius, lib. xlii. p. 334. edit. Reimar. Vid. etiam. notas Fabricii ad loc. Τοῖς δὲ δὴ ναυκρατήσασιν καὶ στεφανοῦν ἐλαίας ἔδωκε; To those who had conquered in the naval engagement he gave crowns of olive. Lib. xlix. p. 597. See also pp. 537. 580. So also Josephus says that Titus gave crowns of gold to those who had distinguished themselves in the siege of Jerusalem; στεφανοῦς ἐπετίθει χρυσοῦς. Bel. Jud. lib. vii. p. 404. See also p. 412. Havercamp.

³ Behind the children and their train walked Perseus himself [the captive king of Macedonia] and wearing sandals of the fashion of his country. He had the appearance of a man overwhelmed with terror, and whose reason almost staggered under the load of his misfortunes. He was followed by a great number of friends and favourites, whose countenances were expressed with sorrow: and who, by fixing their weeping eyes continually on the captives, testified to the spectators that it was his lot which they lamented, and

moüs hero¹ who had fought valiantly for his country and her liberties, the weak and tender sex, born to a happier fate, and young children² insensible of their wretched condition, led in triumph; but vast numbers of waggons, full of rich furniture, statues, pictures, plate, vases, vests³, of which they had stripped palaces and the houses of the great; and carts loaded with the arms they had taken from the enemy, and with the coin⁴ of the empires they had conquered, pillaged, and enslaved, preceded the triumphal car. On this most splendid occasion, imperial Rome was a scene of universal festivity: the temples were all thrown open, were adorned with garlands, and filled with clouds of incense and the richest perfumes⁵; the spectators were clothed in white garments⁶: hecatombs of victims were slain⁷, and the most sumptuous entertainments⁸ were given.

The illustrious captives, after having been dragged through the city in this procession, and thus publicly exposed, were generally imprisoned, frequently strangled and dispatched⁹ in dungeons, or sold for slaves.¹⁰ — To several of these well known circumstances

¹ That they were regardless of their own. Plutarchi Vitæ, in Æmil. tom. ii. pp. 186, 187. edit. Briani.

² Thus, at the conclusion of the second Punic war, the Numidian and Carthaginian captive generals were led in triumph. Καὶ Καρχηδονίων αὐτῶν καὶ Νομάδων ὅσοι τῶν ἡγεμονῶν ἐληφθῆσαν. Appian. tom. i. p. 58. edit. Tollii. Amst. 1670. Several kings, princes, and generals were also led in Pompey's triumph. Παρηγέτο δὲ καὶ ὁ Κολχῶν σκηπτοῦχος Οὐθακῆς, καὶ Ἰουδαίων βασιλεὺς Ἀριστοβούλος, καὶ οἱ Κιλικίων τυράννοι, καὶ Σκυθῶν βασιλεῖοι γυναῖκες καὶ ἡγεμόνες τρεῖς Ἰβήρων, καὶ Ἀθῶνων δύο, καὶ Μενάνδρος ὁ Λαοδικεύς, ἱππάρχος τοῦ Ἀθριδαίου γενομένου. Appian. tom. i. p. 417.

³ Plutarch, in his account of the triumph of Æmilius at the conquest of Macedon, represents this tragical circumstance in a very affecting manner. The king's children were also led captive, and along with them a train of nurses, and tutors, and governors; all bathed in tears, stretching out their hands to the spectators, and teaching the children to entreat and supplicate their mercy. There were two boys and a girl, whose tender age rendered them insensible to the greatness of their calamity, and this their insensibility was the most affecting circumstance in their unhappy condition. Plutarch. Æmil. tom. ii. p. 186. See also Appian. p. 417. edit. Amst. 1670.

⁴ Κρατήρας ἀργύρου, καὶ κεράλα, καὶ φιάλας καὶ κυλικας. Plutarch. ibid. p. 497. Αἰχμαλωτοὶς ἀνδριάσι καὶ γραφαῖς καὶ κολυσσοῖς κ. λ. p. 496. See also Appian. tom. i. p. 58. and p. 417. Tollii.

⁵ Ἄνδρες ἐπεπορευμένοι τρισχίλιοι, νομισμα φερόντες ἀργύρου κ. λ. Ἐτα μέλα τοῦλους οἱ το νομισμα φερόντες. Plutarch. tom. ii. p. 184. Appian. p. 417.

⁶ Πας δὲ ναὺς ἀνεωκίτο, καὶ στεφανῶν καὶ θυμιαμάτων ἦν πλῆρης. Plutarch. tom. i. p. 496. Gr. 8vo.

⁷ Niveos ad fræna Quirites. Juvénal. Sat. x. ver. 45. Καθαρὰς ἐσθήσι κεκοσμημένοι. Plutarch. p. 496. Steph.

⁸ Μετὰ τοὺτους ἡγοῦντο χρυσοκέρω τροφίαι βους, ἑκατὸν εἰκοσι, μύραις ἡσκημένοι καὶ στεμμασι. After these were led one hundred and twenty fat oxen, which had their horns gilded, and which were adorned with ribbons and garlands. Plutarch. ii. p. 885.

⁹ Ἀφικόμενος δὲ εἰς τὸ Καπιτώλιον ὁ Σικιτιῶν, τὴν μὲν πομπὴν κατεπαύσεν, εἰς τὰ δὲ τοὺς φίλους, ὥσπερ ἐδος ἐστίν, εἰς τὸ ἱερὸν. Appian. tom. i. p. 59. edit. Amst. 1670.

¹⁰ Παρέλθων δ' εἰς Καπιτώλιον, οὐδενὰ τῶν αἰχμαλωτῶν, ὥς ἕτεροι τῶν Δριαμέδων παραγαγόντων [ἀνείλετο]. Appian. p. 418. For example, Aristobulus king of the Jews, after having been exposed, and dragged through the city in Pompey's triumph, was immediately, after the procession was concluded, put to death: Tigranes, some time afterwards, Ἀριστοβούλος αὐτοῦς ἀνῆρεθῆ, καὶ Τίγρανῆς ὕστερον. Appian de Bellis Mithrid. p. 419 Amst. 1670. See also p. 403.

¹¹ Longe plurimos captivos ex Etruscis ante currum duxit, quibus sub hasta venundatis. Livy, lib. vi. p. 409. edit. Elz. 1634.

attending a *Roman triumph*, the sacred writers evidently allude in the following passages. In the *first* of which Jesus Christ is represented as a great *conqueror*, who, after having totally *vanquished* and *subjugated* all the *empires* and *kingdoms* of false religion, and *overturned* the mighty *establishment* of *Judaism* and *Paganism*, supported by the *great* and *powerful*, celebrates a most magnificent *TRIUMPH* over them, *leads* them in *procession*, openly *exposing* them to the *view* of the *WHOLE WORLD*, as the *captives* of his *omnipotence*, and the *trophies* of his *Gospel*! *Having spoiled principalities and powers, he made a shew of them openly, triumphing over them!*¹ — The *second* passage, whose beautiful and striking imagery is taken from a *Roman triumph*, occurs 2 Cor. ii. 14—16. *Now thanks be unto God, who always causeth us to triumph in Christ, and maketh manifest the savour of his knowledge by us in every place. For we are unto God a sweet savour of Christ, in them that are saved, and in them that perish: to the one we are a savour of death unto death; and to the other, of life unto life.* In this passage, God Almighty, in very striking sentiments and language, is represented as *leading the Apostles in triumph*² through the world, shewing them every where as the monuments of his grace and mercy, and by their means *diffusing* in every place the *odour* of the knowledge of God — in reference to a triumph, when all the temples were filled with fragrance, and the whole air breathed perfume:—and the apostle, continuing the allusion, adds, that this *odour* would prove the means of the *salvation* of some, and *destruction* of others—as in a triumph, after the *pomp* and *procession* was *concluded*, some of the *captives* were *put to death*, others *saved alive*.³

¹ Coloss. ii. 15. Ὁριαμεύσας αὐτοὺς, Leading them in triumph.

² Ὁριαμεύοντι ἡμᾶς, Causeth us to triumph; rather, leadeth us about in triumph. Ἐὐριαμεύοντι καὶ ἀντηδόν. He was led in triumph and then put to death. Appian, p. 403. Amst. 1670. "The Greek word, Ὁριαμεύοντι, which we render *causeth us to triumph*, properly signifies to triumph over, or to lead in triumph, as our translators themselves have rightly rendered it in another place, Coloss. ii. 15. And so the Apostle's true meaning is plainly this: Now thanks be to God, who always triumpheth over us in Christ: *leading us about in triumph*, as it were in solemn procession. This yields a most congruous and beautiful sense of his words. And in order to display the force of his fine sentiment, in its full compass and extent, let it be observed, that when St. Paul represents himself and others, as being led about in triumph, like so many captives, by the prevailing power and efficacy of Gospel grace and truth, his words naturally imply and suggest three things worthy of particular notice and attention; namely, a contest, a victory, and an open shew of his victory. (Brekell's Discourses, pp. 141, 142.) "While God was leading about such men in triumph, he made them very serviceable and successful in promoting Christian knowledge in every place wherever they came. (Ibid. p. 151.)

³ Brünig's Compendium Antiquitatum Græcarum e profanis sacrarum, pp. 107—136; and his Appendix de Triumpho Romanorum, pp. 415—434; Lydii Diatriba de Triumpho Jesu Christi in Cruce, pp. 285—300. of his work, intituled Florum Sparsio ad Historiam Passionis Jesu Christi (Dordrecht, 1672. 18mo.); Harwood's Introduction to the New Testament, vol. ii. pp. 29—34. 47—58.

PART III.

SACRED ANTIQUITIES OF THE JEWS, AND OF OTHER NATIONS INCIDENTALLY MENTIONED IN THE SCRIPTURES.

CHAPTER I.

OF SACRED PLACES.

THE whole world being the workmanship of God, there is no place, in which men may not testify their reverence for His supreme Majesty. From the very first beginning of time God had always some place appropriated for the solemn duties of religious worship. Adam, even during his continuance in Paradise, had some place where to present himself before the Lord; and, after his expulsion thence, his sons in like manner had whither to bring their oblations and sacrifices. This probably was the reason why Cain did not immediately fall upon his brother, when his offering was refused, because perhaps the solemnity and religion of the place, and the sensible appearance of the divine Majesty there, struck him with a reverential awe that might cause him to defer his villanous design till he came into the field where he slew him.

The patriarchs, both before and after the flood, used altars and mountains and groves for the same purpose: thus we read of Noah's building an altar to the Lord, and offering burnt offerings upon it. (Gen. viii. 20.) Abraham, when he was called to the worship of the true God, erected altars wherever he pitched his tent (Gen. xii. 8. and xiii. 4.): He planted a grove in Beersheba, and called there on the name of the Lord (Gen. xxi. 33.): and it was upon a mountain that God ordered him to offer up his son Isaac. (Gen. xxii. 2.) Jacob in particular called a place by the name of God's House, where he vowed to pay the tithes of all that God should give him. (Gen. xxviii. 22.)

In the wilderness, where the Israelites themselves had no settled habitations, they had by God's command a moving tabernacle; and as soon as they were fixed in the land of promise, God appointed a temple to be built at Jerusalem, which David intended and his son Solomon performed: after the first temple was destroyed, another was built in the room of it. (Ezra iii. 8.), which Christ himself owned for his *house of prayer* (Matt. xxi. 13.), and which both he and his apostles frequented, as well as the synagogues.

In the very first ages of Christianity we see in the sacred writings more than probable footsteps of some determined places for their solemn assemblies, and peculiar only to that use. Of this nature was

that ~~upper room~~ into which the apostles and disciples, after their return from our Saviour's ascension, went up as into a place commonly known and separated to divine use. (Acts. i. 13.) Such another (if not the same) was that one place, in which they were all assembled on the day of Pentecost, when the Holy Ghost visibly came down upon them (Acts ii. 1.); and this is the more probable because the multitude who were mostly *strangers of every nation under heaven*, came so readily to the place, upon the first rumour of so extraordinary an incident, which supposes it to be commonly known as the place where Christians used to meet together. And as many of the first believers sold their houses and lands, and laid their money at the apostles' feet, to supply the necessities of the church, so it is not unlikely that others might give their houses, or at least some convenient room in them, for a place of worship; which may be the reason why the apostle so often salutes such and such a person, and the church in his house (Rom. xvi. 5. 1 Cor. xvi. 19. Coloss. iv. 15.): for that this salutation is not used, merely because their families were Christians, appears from other salutations of the same apostle, where Aristobulus and Narcissus, &c. are saluted with their household. (Rom. xvi. 10, 11. 2 Tim. iv. 19.)

Solomon, indeed, at the consecration of the temple, acknowledges that *the heaven of heavens could not contain God, and much less the house which he had built him*. (1 Kings viii. 27.) But it will not therefore follow, that there is no necessity for places to be appropriated to divine worship: these are requisite for this purpose, that all the offices of religion may be performed with more decency and solemnity, and by such structures to defend us from many inconveniences, which would extremely incommode us in paying our duty to God. It is the same thing doubtless to the Almighty wherever we pray, so long as we pray with a pious mind and a devout heart, and make the subject of our prayers such good things as he has permitted us to ask; but it was not consistent with the preservation of the Jewish state and religion, that God should be publicly worshipped in every place; for, since the Jews were on every side surrounded with idolaters, it was highly necessary that in all divine matters there should be a strict union between them all, both in heart and voice, and consequently that they should all meet together in one place to worship God, lest they should fall into idolatry, which actually came to pass after the kingdom was divided, and the places of worship by that means became distinct; and therefore though Solomon knew very well that in every place God was ready to hear the prayers of devout supplicants, yet for the preservation of peace and unity, he, at the consecration of the temple, thought proper to leave this impression on the minds of the people, that as God had ordained he should be publicly worshipped in the manner prescribed by him, so he would be found more exorable to the prayers which were offered up in that temple (as the place of public worship) rather than in any other place, thereby to excite them to resort frequently to it. It is beyond all doubt, how-

ever, that pious persons among the Jews worshiped God also in private, and in their families; in which they might be assisted by the priests and Levites, who having no distinct portion of the land allotted to them, were dispersed among all the tribes; and thus it is said of Daniel, that in his chamber he *kneeled upon his knees three times a day, and prayed, and gave thanks before God.* (Dan. vi. 10.)

There were several public places appropriated by the Jews for religious worship, viz. 1. The *Tabernacle*, which in time gave place to 2. The *Temple*, both of which are oftentimes in Scripture called the sanctuary; between which there was no other difference as to the principal design (though there was in beauty and workmanship) than that the tabernacle was a moveable temple, as the temple was an immoveable tabernacle; on which account the tabernacle is sometimes called the temple (1 Sam. i. 9. and iii. 3.), as the temple is sometimes called the tabernacle. (Jer. x. 20. Lam. ii. 6.) 3. There were also places of worship called in Scripture *High places*, used promiscuously during the times of both the tabernacle and temple until the captivity; and lastly, there were *Synagogues* among the Jews, and other places, used only for prayer, called *proseuchæ* or *oratories*, which chiefly obtained after the captivity; of these various structures some account will be found in the following sections.

SECTION I.

OF THE TABERNACLE.

I. *Different Tabernacles in use among the Israelites.*—II. *THE TABERNACLE, so called by way of eminence, not of Egyptian Origin.—Its Materials.*—III. *Form and Construction of the Tabernacle.—Its Contents.*—IV. *Its Migrations.*

I. **MENTION** is made in the Old Testament of three different tabernacles previously to the erection of Solomon's temple. The *first*, which Moses erected, is called the *tabernacle of the congregation* (Exod. xxxiii. 7.); here he gave audience, heard causes, and inquired of Jehovah, and here also at first, perhaps the public offices of religion were solemnised. The *second* tabernacle was that erected by Moses for Jehovah, and at his express command, partly to be a palace of his presence as the king of Israel (Exod. xl. 34, 35.), and partly to be the medium of the most solemn public worship, which the people were to pay to him. (26—29.) This tabernacle was erected on the first day of the first month in the second year after the departure of the Israelites from Egypt. The *third* public tabernacle was that erected by David in his own city, for the reception of the ark, when he received it from the house of Obed-Edom. (2 Sam. vi. 7. 1 Chron. xvi. 1.) Of the second of these tabernacles we are now to treat, which was called **THE TABERNACLE** by way of distinction. It was a moveable chapel, so contrived

as to be taken to pieces and put together again at pleasure, for the convenience of carrying it from place to place.

II. It has been imagined that this tabernacle, together with all its furniture and appurtenances, was of Egyptian origin: that Moses projected it after the fashion of some such structure which he had observed in Egypt, and which was in use among other nations; or that God directed it to be made with a view of indulging the Israelites in a compliance with their customs and modes of worship, so far as there was nothing in them directly sinful. The heathen nations, it is true, had such tabernacles or portable shrines as are alluded to by the prophet Amos. (v. 26.), which might bear a great resemblance to that of the Jews; but it has neither been proved, nor is it probable, that they had them *before* the Jews, and that the Almighty so far condescended to indulge the Israelites, a wayward people, and prone to idolatry, as to introduce them into his own worship. It is far more likely that the heathens derived their tabernacles from that of the Jews, who had the whole of their religion immediately from God, than that the Jews, or rather that God should take them from the heathens.¹

The materials of the tabernacle were provided by the people; every one brought his oblation according to his ability: those of the first quality offered gold, those of a middle condition brought silver and brass and shittim-wood²; and the offerings of the meaner sort consisted of yarn, fine linen, goats-hair and skins; nor were the women backward in contributing to this work, for they willingly brought in their bracelets, ear-rings, and other ornaments, and such of them as were skilful in spinning made yarn and thread. In short, the liberality of the people on this occasion was so great, that Moses was obliged by proclamation to forbid any more offerings, and thereby restrain the excessive zeal of the people for that service. (Exod. xxxv. and xxxvi.)

This tabernacle was set up in the wilderness of Sinai, and carried along with the Israelites from place to place as they journeyed towards Canaan, and is often called the tabernacle of the congregation. The form of it appears to have closely resembled our modern tents, but it was much larger, having the sides and roof secured with boards, hangings, and coverings, and was surrounded on all sides by a large outer court, which was inclosed by pillars, posted at equal distances, whose spaces were filled up with curtains fixed to these pillars: whence it is evident that this tabernacle consisted first of the tents or house itself which was covered, and next of the

¹ The hypothesis above noticed was advanced by Spencer in his learned, but in many respects fanciful treatise, *De Legibus Hebræorum*, lib. iii. diss. i. c. 3. and diss. vi. c. 1. His arguments were examined and refuted by Buddeus in his *Historia Ecclesiastica Veteris Testamenti*, part i. pp. 310. 548.

² This shittim-wood is supposed to have been either the acacia or the cedar, both which grow in Egypt and in Syria. The acacia is delineated by Prosper Alpinus, *De Plantis Egyptiacis*, c. 4. Hasselquist found it in Palestine (*Tour in the Levant*, p. 250.), and Dr. Pococke found it both on Mount Sinai and in Egypt. The cedar has been already

court that surrounded it, which was open: all which are minutely and exactly described in Exod. xxv.—xxx. xxxvi.—xl. from which chapters the following particulars are abridged.

III. The tent itself was an oblong square, thirty cubits in length, and ten in height and breadth. The inside of it was divided by a veil or hanging, made of rich embroidered linen, which parted the holy place from the holy of holies. The holy place, (which is called the *first tabernacle*, Heb. ix. 2. 6.) was twenty cubits long, and ten wide; and the holy of holies, (called the *second tabernacle*, Heb. ix. 7.) was ten cubits long, and ten broad. In the holy place stood the altar of incense overlaid with gold, the table of shewbread, consisting of twelve loaves, and the great candlestick of pure gold, containing seven branches: none of the people were allowed to go into the holy place, but only the priests. The holy of holies (so called because it was the most sacred place of the tabernacle, into which none went but the high priest) contained in it the ark, called the ark of the testimony (Exod. xxv. 22.) or the ark of the covenant. (Josh. iv. 7.) This was a small chest or coffer made of shittim-wood, overlaid with gold, into which were put the two tables of the law (as well the broken ones, say the Jews, as the whole) with the pot of manna, and Aaron's rod that budded (Heb. ix. 4.), which passage of the apostle explains what is meant by the pot of manna being laid up before the Lord (Exod. xvi. 33.), and Aaron's rod being laid before the testimony of the Lord (Numb. xvii. 10.), that is, within the very ark itself; for though, when this ark was afterwards put into the temple of Solomon, it is declared that there was nothing in it save the two tables which Moses put therein at Horeb (2 Chron. v. 10,) yet that might be owing to the various accidents which befell it while in the hands of the Philistines and others.

The lid or covering of this ark was wholly of solid gold, and called the mercy-seat: at the two ends of it were two cherubim (or hieroglyphic figures, the form of which it is impossible now to ascertain) looking inwards towards each other, with wings expanded, which, embracing the whole circumference of the mercy-seat, met on each side in the middle. Here the Shechinah or Divine Presence rested, both in the tabernacle and temple, and was visibly seen in the appearance of a cloud over it. (Lev. xvi. 2.) From this the divine oracles were given out by an audible voice, as often as Jehovah was consulted on behalf of his people. (Exod. xxv. 22. Numb. vii. 89.) And hence it is that the ark is called the footstool of God (Psal. xcix. 5.), who is so often said in Scripture, *to dwell between the cherubim* (2 Kings xix. 15. Psal. lxxx. 1.), because there was the seat or throne of the visible appearance of his glory among them; and this was the reason why not only in the temple, when they came up there to worship, but every where else in their dispersion through the whole world, whenever they prayed, they turned their faces towards the place where the ark stood, and directed all their devotions that way. (1 Kings viii. 48. Dan. vi. 10.) The boards or planks, of which the body of the tabernacle was

composed, were forty-eight in number, each a cubit and a half wide, and ten cubits high. Twenty of them were required to make up one side of the tabernacle, and twenty the other, and at the west end of it were the other eight, which were all let into one another, by two tenons above and below, and compacted together by bars running from one end to the other; but the east end, which was the entry, was open, and only covered with a rich curtain of blue silk, and fine twined linen, wrought with needle-work. The roof of the tabernacle was a square frame of planks, resting upon their bases, and over these were coverings or curtains of different kinds; of which the first on the inside was made of fine linen, curiously embroidered in various colours of crimson and scarlet, purple and hyacinth. The next was made of goats-hair curiously wove together; and the last, or outmost, was of sheep and badgers-skins (some dyed red, and others of azure blue), which served to preserve the other rich curtains from the rain, and to protect the tabernacle itself from the injuries of the weather.

Round about the tabernacle was a large oblong court, an hundred cubits long, and fifty broad, encompassed with pillars overlaid with silver, and whose capitals were of the same metal, but their bases were of brass. Ten of these pillars stood towards the west, six to the east, twenty to the north, and twenty to the south, at five cubits distance from each other. Over these hung curtains made of twined linen thread in the manner of net-work, which surrounded the tabernacle on all sides, except at the entrance of the court, which was covered with a curtain made of richer materials. Nearly in the centre of this court stood a brazen vessel, called the brazen laver, in which the priests washed their hands and feet, whenever they were to offer sacrifices, or go into the tabernacle; and directly opposite to the entrance of the tabernacle stood the brazen altar of burnt-offerings, in the open air, that the fire which was kept perpetually upon it, and the smoke arising from the victims that were burnt there, might not spoil the inside of the tabernacle: at the four corners of this altar there was some thing like four horns, and as the altar itself was hollow and open both at top and bottom, from these horns there hung a grate made of brass, (fastened with four rings and four chains) on which the wood and the sacrifices were burnt; and as the ashes fell through, they were received below in a pan.

There is no precept in the law to make the altar a privileged place, but in conformity to the custom of other nations the Jews seem to have made it such; for from the words in Exod. xxi. 14. where God ordered the wilful murderer *to be taken from his altar, that he may die*, it seems unquestionably true, that both in the wilderness and afterwards in Canaan, this altar continued a sanctuary for those who fled into it; and very probably it was the horns of this altar (then at Gibeon) that Adonijah and Joab took hold of (1 Kings i. 50. and ii. 28.), for the temple of Solomon was not then erected.

The fire that was upon this altar of burnt-offerings, was at first miraculously kindled by God, when Aaron, after the consecration of himself and his sons, offered their first burnt-offerings for themselves and the people; at which time it pleased God, as a token of his approbation, to consume the victim with fire. (Levit. ix. 24.) God had beforehand ordered that the fire on this altar, when once kindled, should never go out. (Levit. vi. 12, 13.) It was reckoned an impious presumption to make use of any other but this sacred fire in burning incense before the Lord; which was sufficiently notified to Aaron by an injunction given him, that he was to light the incense offered to God, in the most holy place on the great day of expiation, at this fire only. (Lev. xvi. 12, 13.) Notwithstanding which prohibition Nadab and Abihu, two unhappy sons of Aaron, forgetful of their duty, took their censers, and putting common fire in them, laid incense thereon, and offered strange fire before the Lord, in their daily ministrations, which profane approach God immediately resented; for we are told that *a fire went out from the Lord, and devoured them, so that they died.* (Levit. x. 1.)

After the Israelites were settled in the land of promise, it appears that this tabernacle was surrounded with a great many other tents or cells, which were placed about it in the same manner as the buildings were afterwards placed around the temple. These were absolutely necessary for the reception of the priests during the time of their ministration, and for laying up the utensils and provisions which were used in the tabernacle; this explains what is related of Eli's sons going into the kitchen where the peace-offerings were dressing, and taking out of the pots whatever the flesh-hook brought up. (1 Sam. ii. 14.) And thus Eli is said to be laid down in his place (iii. 2.), that is, was gone to bed in one of these tents near the tabernacle, next to which Samuel lay, which made him (being then a child) run to Eli, when he heard the voice of the Lord, thinking that Eli had called (4, 5, &c.): and this also explains what is said of David (Mat. xii. 4.) that *he entered into the house of God and did eat the shew-bread*, that is, he came to the priest's habitation, which was among these tents round the tabernacle, and which were reckoned

as an asylum; and it is well known that, among almost all the heathen nations of antiquity, the altars of their deities were accounted so sacred that the vilest miscreant found safety, if he once reached an altar. Hence arose many abuses, and justice was greatly perverted: so that it became a maxim that the guilty should be punished even though they should have taken refuge there. We have remarked above that the presumptuous murderer was, by divine command, to be dragged thence and put to death. Euripides thus alludes to a similar ordinance among the heathen nations in his time: —

Εγω, γὰρ ὅστις μὴ δίκαιος ὢν ἀνὴρ
 Βάμον προσίξει, τὸ νόμον χαιρεῖν εἶον,
 Πρὸς τὴν δίκην ἄγοιμ' α', οὐ τρέσας θεούς·
 Κακὸν γὰρ ἀνδρὰ χρη κακῶ πασχεῖν αἶ.

Eurip. Frag. 42. edit. Musgrave.

In English thus:

"If an unrighteous man, availing himself of the law, should claim the altar, I would drag him to justice, nor fear the wrath of the gods: that a wicked man should always suffer for him."

as parts of the house of God ; for that David did not go into the tabernacle itself, and take the shew-bread from the table that stood there, is evident from 1 Sam. xxi. 6. where it is said that the shew-bread delivered by the priest to David, was indeed bread that had been hallowed, but was removed from before the Lord, other bread having been put in its place, which was done every Sabbath day, according to the law. (Levit. xxiv. 8.) So that the bread which was removed, belonging to the priest, came into his custody, and was properly under his hand (1 Sam. xxi. 3.) of which he gave David a share, whose present necessity justified the action.

When the tabernacle was finished, it was consecrated, with all the furniture therein, by being anointed with a peculiar oil, which God gave directions to prepare for that very purpose (Exod. xxx. 22., &c.), after which He made his people sensible of his special presence in it, covering it with a cloud which overshadowed it by day, and by night gave light, as if it had been a fire, and by giving answers in an audible manner from the ark when consulted by the high priest. Whenever the Israelites changed their camp the tabernacle was taken down, and every Levite knew what part he was to carry, for this was a part of their office ; and sometimes, upon extraordinary occasions, the priests themselves bore the ark, as when they passed over Jordan, and besieged Jericho. (Josh. iii. 14. and vi. 6.) Concerning the manner of carrying the several parts of it, see Numb. iv. When they encamped, the tabernacle stood always in the midst, being surrounded by the army of the Israelites on all sides in a quadrangular form, divided according to their several tribes ; the Israelitish camp being at the distance of two thousand cubits from the tabernacle, which by computation is reckoned a mile, and is called *a sabbath day's journey* (Acts i. 12.) as being the distance they had to go on that day to the place of worship. Moses and Aaron, with the priests and Levites, encamped in their tents next the tabernacle, between it and the army.

IV. The tabernacle being so constructed as to be taken to pieces and put together again as occasion required, it was removed as often as the camp of the Israelites moved from one station to another ; and thus accompanied them in all their marches, until they arrived at the land of Canaan. It was at first set up at Gilgal, being the first encampment of the Israelites in Canaan ; and here it continued for about seven years, during which Joshua was occupied in the conquest of that country. When they came to the river Jordan, over which they were to pass, the priests that bore the ark of the covenant were commanded to go first, by which an immediate miracle was wrought ; for the waters of Jordan, though swollen at that time by torrents from the mountains, suspended their course, and standing on an heap, left the land dry, so that all the people passed over. (Josh. iii. 6—17.) While Jericho was invested, we find that carried seven times round the city, after which the walls of it fell down, and then the Israelites entered and sacked the place.

Afterwards the tabernacle was pitched in Shiloh, being nearly in the centre of the country then subdued; here we read of it in the days of Eli who was both priest and judge; for the Israelites, being beaten by the Philistines, sent and fetched the ark of the covenant from Shiloh into their camp, that the presence of it might be auspicious to them. (1 Sam. iv. 4.) However, the Philistines still prevailing, the ark of God was taken and carried to Ashdod, one of the cities of the Philistines, who placed it in the temple of Dagon their idol god. (1 Sam. v. 1, 2.) And now the tabernacle and the ark were entirely, and, as some think, for ever separated. The Lord, however, shewed his displeasure against the men of Ashdod for detaining the ark, and smote them with a terrible disease; upon which the ark was removed to Gath, another of their cities, and thence to Ekron, a third city; the inhabitants of both which places underwent the same chastisement with those of Ashdod for their presumption in detaining it. (1 Sam. v. 8—12.)

At length the Philistines, after the ark had been in their custody seven months, sent to Bethshemesh (a city in the tribe of Judah bordering upon the Philistines) with an offering of jewels and gold as an atonement for their sin. (1 Sam. vi.) The men of Bethshemesh received it, but their curiosity prompting them to look into it, they were suddenly slain in great numbers: thence it was taken away at their request by the men of Kirjath-jearim (another city in the same tribe), and put into the custody of Abinadab of Gibeah, their neighbour, where it remained twenty years (2 Sam. vi. 3, 4.), during which time it appears, that Saul ordered Abijah the high priest to bring it to his camp in Gibeah. (1 Sam. xiv. 18.) After which it was returned again to the house of Abinadab. When David was king, and had gotten full possession of Jerusalem, he made an attempt to bring the ark thither, but was discouraged by an example of the divine vengeance upon one of the sons of Abinadab, who unadvisedly laid his hands upon it; on which account David left it at the house of Obed-Edom the Gittite. (2 Sam. vi. 10.)

With Obed-Edom the ark remained three months; after which it was brought with great solemnity into that part of Jerusalem called the city of David, where a place was prepared and a tent pitched for it (2 Sam. vi. 17. 1 Chron. xv. 25. and xvi. 1.), and there it remained till it was put into the temple afterwards built by Solomon, upon which occasion it appears that the 132d Psalm was composed. From the temple of Solomon it was afterwards removed (probably by one of the idolatrous kings of Judah), for we find the pious king Josiah ordering it to be replaced. (2 Chron. xxxv. 3.) It is supposed to have been consumed in the destruction of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar, which took place not many years afterwards.

With regard to the tabernacle and the other sacred things belonging to it, we read that in the days of Saul it had been removed from Shiloh to Nob, a city on this side of the Jordan, between the tribes of Judah and Benjamin, not far from the city of Jerusalem.

(1 Sam. xxi. 1.); which had been assigned to the priests and Levites for their habitation, among whom Abimelech and his son Abiathar were successively high priests. (Mark ii. 26.) In the reign of David it was at Gibeon in the tribe of Benjamin (1 Chron. xvi. 39. xxi. 29.); probably because Saul had **commanded** Doeg to assassinate all the priests at Nob: which **sanguinary** commission he executed so successfully, that Abiathar alone **escaped** to David. Here also it was at the commencement of Solomon's reign (2 Chron. i. 3.), after which time the Scriptures are silent concerning it.

SECTION II.

OF THE TEMPLE.

I. *The Temple of Solomon.*—II. *The Second Temple.*—*Its various Courts.*—*Reverence of the Jews for it.*

HAVING taken a survey of the tabernacle, we proceed to the Temple at Jerusalem, which was erected nearly upon the same plan as the former structure, but in a more magnificent and expensive manner. According to the opinion of some writers, there were *three* temples, viz. the first, erected by Solomon; the second by Zerubabel and Joshua the high priest; and the third by Herod a few years before the birth of Christ. But this opinion is very properly rejected by the Jews: who do not allow the third to be a new temple, but only the second temple rebuilt: and this opinion corresponds with the prophecy of Haggai (ii. 9.), that *the glory of this latter house—the temple built by Zerubabel, should be greater than that of the former*; which prediction was uttered with reference to the Messiah's honouring it with his presence and ministry.

I. The first temple is that which usually bears the name of Solomon; the materials for which were provided by David before his death, though the edifice was raised by his son. It stood on Mount Moriah, an eminence of the mountainous ridge in the Scriptures termed Mount Sion (Psal. cxxxii. 13, 14.), which had been purchased of Araunah or Ornan, the Jebusite. (2 Sam. xxiv. 23, 24. 1 Chron. xxi. 25.) The plan and whole model of this superb structure were formed after that of the tabernacle, but of much larger dimensions. It was surrounded, except at the front or east end, by three stories of chambers, each five cubits square, which reached to half the height of the temple: and the front was ornamented with a magnificent portico, which rose to the height of one hundred and twenty cubits: so that the form of the whole edifice was not unlike that of some antient churches which have a lofty tower in the front, and a low aisle running along each side of the building. The utensils for the sacred service were the same: excepting that several of them, as the altar, candlestick, &c. were larger, in proportion to the more spacious edifice to which they belonged. Seven years and six months

were occupied in the erection of the superb and magnificent temple of Solomon; by whom it was dedicated¹ with peculiar solemnity to the worship of the Most High, who on this occasion vouchsafed to honour it with the Shechinah, or visible manifestation of His presence. Various attempts have been made to describe the proportions and several parts of this structure; but as no two writers scarcely agree on this subject, a minute description of it is designedly omitted. It retained its pristine splendour only thirty-three or thirty-four years, when Shishak king of Egypt took Jerusalem, and carried away the treasures of the temple²; and after undergoing subsequent profanations and pillages, this stupendous building was finally plundered and burnt by the Chaldeans under Nebuchadnezzar in the year of the world 3416, or before Christ 584. (2 Kings xxv. 13—15. 2 Chron. xxxvi. 17—20.)

II. After the captivity the temple emerged from its ruins, being rebuilt by Zerubbabel³, but with vastly inferior and diminished glory; as appears from the tears of the aged men who had beheld the former structure in all its grandeur. (Ezra iii. 12.) The second temple was profaned by order of Antiochus Epiphanes (A.M. 3837, B.C. 163); who caused the daily sacrifice to be discontinued, and erected the image of Jupiter Olympus on the altar of burnt offering. In this condition it continued three years (2 Macc. x. 1—8.) when Judas Maccabeus purified and repaired it, and restored the sacrifices and true worship of Jehovah. (A.M. 3840, B.C. 160.)

Some years before the birth of our Saviour, the repairing or rather *gradual* rebuilding of this second temple, which had become decayed in the lapse of five centuries, was undertaken by Herod the Great, who for nine years employed eighteen thousand workmen upon it, and spared no expense to render it equal, if not superior, in magnitude, splendour, and beauty to any thing among mankind. Josephus calls it a work the most admirable of any that had ever been seen or heard of, both for its curious structure and its magnitude, and also for the vast wealth expended upon it, as well as for the universal reputation of its sanctity.⁴ But though Herod accomplished his original design in the time above specified, yet the Jews continued to ornament and enlarge it, expending the sacred treasure in annexing additional buildings to it; so that they might with great propriety assert that their temple had been forty and six years in building.⁵

¹ In the year of the world 3001; before Christ 999.

² In the year of the world 3333, before Christ 967. 1 Kings xiv. 25. 26. 2 Chron. xii. 9.

³ Ezra i.—vi. Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xi. c. 4.

⁴ De Bell. Jud. lib. vi. c. 4. § 8.

⁵ John ii. 20. There is therefore no real contradiction between the sacred writer and Josephus. The words of the evangelist are “forty and six years was this temple in building.” This, as Calmet well observes, is not saying that Herod had employed forty-six years in erecting it. Josephus acquaints us that Herod began to rebuild the temple, yet so as not to be esteemed a new edifice, in the eighteenth year of his reign (Antiq. lib. xv. c. 14.), computing from his being declared king by the Romans, or in the fifteenth year (Bell. Jud. lib. 1. c. 16.) reckoning from the death of Antigonus. He finished it for use

Before we proceed to describe this venerable edifice, it may be proper to remark, that by the temple is to be understood not only the fabric or house itself, which by way of eminence is called *the Temple*, viz. the holy of holies, the sanctuary, and the several courts both of the priests and Israelites; but also all the numerous chambers and rooms which this prodigious edifice comprehended, and each of which had its respective degree of holiness, increasing in proportion to its contiguity to the holy of holies. This remark it will be necessary to bear in mind, lest the reader of Scriptures should be led to suppose that whatever is there said to be transacted in the temple was actually done in the interior of that sacred edifice. To this infinite number of apartments into which the temple was disposed our Lord refers (John xiv. 2.): and, by a very striking and magnificent simile borrowed from them, he represents those numerous seats and mansions of heavenly bliss which his *Father's house* contained, and which were prepared for the everlasting abode of the righteous. The imagery is singularly beautiful and happy, when considered as an allusion to the temple, which our Lord not unfrequently called *his Father's house*.

The second temple, originally built by Zerubbabel, after the captivity, and repaired by Herod, differed in several respects from that erected by Solomon, although they agreed in others.

The temple erected by Solomon was more splendid and magnificent than the second temple, which was deficient in five remarkable things that constituted the chief glory of the first:—these were the ark and mercy seat,—the shechinah or manifestation of the divine presence in the holy of holies,—the sacred fire on the altar, which had been first kindled from heaven,—the urim and thummim,—and the spirit of prophecy. But the second temple surpassed the first in glory, being honoured by the frequent presence of our divine Saviour, agreeably to the prediction of Haggai. (ii. 9.) Both, however, were erected upon the same site, a very hard rock encompassed by a very frightful precipice; and the foundation was laid with incredible expense and labour. The superstructure was not inferior to this great work; the height of the temple wall, especially on the south side, was stupendous, in the lowest places it was three hundred cubits or four hundred and fifty-feet, and in some places even greater. This most magnificent pile was constructed with hard white stones of prodigious magnitude.¹

The temple itself, strictly so called (which comprised the portico, the sanctuary, and the holy of holies), formed only a small part of the sacred edifice on Mount Moriah; being surrounded by spacious courts, making a square of half a mile in circumference. It was en-

in about nine years (Ant. xv. 14.); but it continued increasing in splendour and magnificence through the pious donations of the people (Bell. Jud. v. 14.) to the time of Nero, when it was completed, and 18,000 workmen were dismissed from that service. From the eighteenth of Herod, who reigned thirty-seven years, to the birth of Christ, more than a year before the death of that prince was above sixteen years, added to which the life of Christ, now thirty, gives forty-six complete years.

Ant. Jud. lib. xv. § 5.

tered through nine gates, which were on every side thickly coated with gold and silver: but there was one gate without the holy house, which was of Corinthian brass, the most precious metal in antient times, and which far surpassed the others in beauty. For while these were of equal magnitude, the gate composed of Corinthian brass was much larger; its height being fifty cubits and its doors forty cubits, and its ornaments both of gold and silver being far more costly and massive. This is supposed to have been the gate called *Beautiful* in Acts iii. 2., where Peter and John, in the name of Christ, healed a man who had been lame from his birth.

The first or outer court, which encompassed the holy house and the other courts, was named the *Court of the Gentiles*; because the latter were allowed to enter into it, but were prohibited from advancing further. On the gates that opened through this enclosure, and on the columns contiguous, were inscriptions in Hebrew, Greek, and Latin; which interdicted, on pain of death, any further entrance to the unclean and to the Gentiles. This court was surrounded by a range of porticoes or cloisters, above which were galleries or apartments supported by pillars of white marble, each consisting of a single piece, and five and twenty cubits in height. One of these was called *Solomon's Porch* or piazza, because it stood on a vast terrace, which he had originally raised from a valley beneath, four hundred cubits high, in order to enlarge the area on the top of the mountain, and make it equal to the plan of his intended building; and as this terrace was the only work of Solomon's that remained in the second temple, the piazza which stood upon it retained the name of that prince. Here it was that our Lord was walking at the feast of dedication (John x. 23.)¹; and that the lame man, when healed by Peter and John, glorified God before all the people.² (Acts iii. 11.) This superb portico is termed the ROYAL PORTICO by Josephus, who represents it as the noblest work beneath the sun, being elevated to such a prodigious height that no one could look down from its flat roof to the valley below, without being seized with dizziness, the sight not reaching to such an immeasurable depth. The south-east corner of the roof of this portico, where the height was greatest, is supposed to have been the *πτερυγιον*, pinnacle, or extreme angle, whence Satan tempted our Saviour to precipitate himself. (Matt. iv. 5. Luke iv. 9.) This also was the spot where it was predicted that the abomination of desolation, or the Roman ensigns, should stand. (Dan. ix. 27. Matt. xxiv. 15.) Solomon's portico was situated in the eastern front of the temple, opposite to the mount of Olives, where our Lord is said to have sat when his disciples came to shew him the grandeur of its various buildings, of which, grand as they were, he said, the time was approaching when

¹ Antiq. Jud. lib. xv. c. xi. § 3.

² Of the same kind with these porticoes, cloisters, or piazzas, were doubtless the five porticoes which surrounded the pool of Bethesda. (John v. 2.) The pool was probably a pentagon, and the piazzas round it were designed to shelter from the weather the multitude of diseased persons who lay waiting for a cure by the miraculous virtue of those waters. Jennings's Jewish Antiq. p. 167.

one stone should not be left upon another. (Matt. xxiv. 1—3.) This outermost court being assigned to the Gentile proselytes, the Jews, who did not worship in it themselves, conceived that it might be lawfully put to profane uses : for here we find that the buyers and sellers of animals for sacrifices, and also the money-changers, had stationed themselves ; until Jesus Christ, awing them into submission by the grandeur and dignity of his person and behaviour, expelled them, telling them that it was the house of prayer *for all nations*, and that it had a relative sanctity, and was not to be profaned. (Matt. xxi. 12, 13. Mark xi. 15—17.)

Within the court of the Gentiles stood the *Court of the Israelites* divided into two parts or courts, the outer one being appropriated to the women, and the inner one to the men. The court of the women was separated from that of the Gentiles by a low stone wall or partition, of elegant construction, on which stood pillars at equal distances, with inscriptions in Greek and Latin, importing that no alien should enter into the holy place. To this wall St. Paul most evidently alludes in Eph. ii. 13, 14. *But now in Christ Jesus, ye, who sometimes were far off, are made nigh by the blood of Christ : for he is our peace, who hath made both one*, (united both Jews and Gentiles into one church,) *and hath broken down the middle wall of partition between us ;* having abolished the law of ordinances by which, as by the wall of separation, both Jews and Gentiles were not only kept asunder, but also at variance. In this court was the treasury, over against which Christ sat, and beheld how the people threw their voluntary offerings into it for furnishing the victims and other things necessary for the sacrifices. (Mark xii. 41. John viii. 20.)

From the court of the women, which was on higher ground than that of the Gentiles, there was an ascent of fifteen steps into the inner or men's court : and so called because it was appropriated to the worship of the male Israelites. In these two courts, collectively termed the court of the Israelites, were the people praying, each apart by himself, for the pardon of his sins, while Zechariah was offering incense within the sanctuary. (Luke i. 10.)

Within the court of the Israelites was that of the priests, which was separated from it by a low wall, one cubit in height. This inclosure surrounded the altar of burnt offerings, and to it the people brought their oblations and sacrifices ; but the priests alone were permitted to enter it. From this court twelve steps ascended to the *temple* strictly so called, which was divided into three parts, the portico, the outer sanctuary, and the holy place. In the *portico* were suspended the splendid votive offerings made by the piety of various individuals. Among its other treasures, there was a golden table given by Pompey, and several golden vines of exquisite workmanship as well as of immense size : for Josephus relates that there were clusters as tall as a man. And he adds, that all around were fixed up and displayed the spoils and trophies taken by Herod from the *Berberians* and *Arabians*. These votive offerings, it should seem, were visible at a distance ; for when Jesus Christ was

sitting on the mount of Olives, and his disciples called his attention to the temple, they pointed out to him the *gifts* with which it was adorned. (Luke xxi. 5.) This porch had a very large portal or gate, which, instead of folding doors, was furnished with a costly Babylonian veil, of many colours, that mystically denoted the universe. From this the *Sanctuary* or holy place was separated from the holy of holies, by a double veil, which is supposed to have been the veil that was rent in twain at our Saviour's crucifixion: thus emblematically pointing out that the separation between Jews and Gentiles was abolished, and that the privilege of the high priest was communicated to all mankind, who might henceforth have access to the throne of grace through the one great mediator, Jesus Christ. (Heb. x. 19—22.) The *Holy of Holies* was twenty cubits square: into it no person was ever admitted but the high priest, who entered it once a year on the great day of atonement. (Exod. xxx. 10. Levit. xvi. 2. 15. 34. Heb. ix. 2—7.)

Magnificent as the rest of the sacred edifice was, it was infinitely surpassed in splendour by the *Inner Temple* or *Sanctuary*. Its appearance, according to Josephus, had every thing that could strike the mind or astonish the sight: for it was covered on every side with plates of gold, so that when the sun rose upon it, it reflected so strong and dazzling an effulgence, that the eye of the spectator was obliged to turn away, being no more able to sustain its radiance than the splendour of the sun. To strangers who were approaching, it appeared at a distance like a mountain covered with snow, for where it was not decorated with plates of gold, it was extremely white and glistening. On the top it had sharp-pointed spikes of gold, to prevent any bird from resting upon it and polluting it. There were, continues the Jewish historian, in that building several stones which were forty-five cubits in length, five in height, and six in breadth.¹ “When all these things are considered, how natural is the exclamation of the disciples when viewing this immense building at a distance: *Master, see what MANNER of STONES* (ποταποὶ λίθοι, what very large stones) *and what BUILDINGS are here!* (Mark xiii. 1.); and how wonderful is the declaration of our Lord upon this, how unlikely to be accomplished before the race of men who were then living should cease to exist. *Seest thou these great buildings? There shall not be left one stone upon another that shall not be thrown down.*”² Improbable as this prediction must have appeared to the disciples at that time, in the short space of about forty years after, it was exactly accomplished; and this most magnificent temple, which the Jews had literally turned into a den of thieves, through the righteous judgments of God upon that wicked and abandoned nation, was utterly destroyed by the Romans A. M. 4073 (A. D. 73), on the same month, and on the same day of the month, when Solomon's temple had been rased to the ground by the Babylonians!

¹ Josephus, *Antiq. Jud.* lib. xv. c. xi. § 3. *Ide* Bell. *Jud.* lib. v. c. 5. § 1—6.

² Mark xiii. 2. Dr. Harwood's *introd.* to the *New Test.* vol. ii. p. 161.^t

Both the first and second temples were contemplated by the Jews with the highest reverence: of their affectionate regard for the first temple, and for Jerusalem, within whose walls it was built, we have several instances in those psalms which were composed during the Babylonish captivity; and of their profound veneration for the second temple we have repeated examples in the New Testament. They could not bear any disrespectful or dishonourable thing to be said of it. The least injurious slight of it, real or apprehended, instantly awakened all the choler of a Jew, and was an affront never to be forgiven. Our Saviour, in the course of his public instructions, happening to say, "Destroy this temple, and in three days I will raise it up again¹;" it was construed into a contemptuous disrespect, designedly thrown out against the temple; his words instantly descended into the heart of a Jew, and kept rankling there for several years; for upon his trial, this declaration, which it was impossible for a Jew ever to forget or to forgive, was immediately alleged against him as big with the most atrocious guilt and impiety: they told the court they had heard him publicly assert, I am able to destroy this temple.² The rancour and virulence they had conceived against him for this speech, which they imagined had been levelled against the temple, was not softened by all the affecting circumstances of that excruciating and wretched death they saw him die: even as he hung upon the cross, with infinite triumph, scorn, and exultation, they upbraided him with it, contemptuously shaking their heads, and saying: *Thou that destroyest the temple, and buildest it in three days, save thyself! If thou be the son of God, come down from the cross.* (Matt. xxvii. 40.)

The superstitious veneration, which this people had for their temple, further appears from the account of Stephen. When his adversaries were baffled and confounded by that superior wisdom and those distinguished gifts which he possessed, they were so exasperated at the victory he had gained over them, that they suborned persons to swear that they had heard him speak blasphemy against Moses and against God. These inflaming the populace, the magistrates, and the Jewish clergy, the holy man was seized, dragged away, and brought before the Sanhedrin. Here the false witnesses whom they had procured, stood up and said, "This person before you is continually uttering the most reproachful expressions against this sacred place³, meaning the temple. This was blasphemy not to be pardoned. A judicature composed of high priests and scribes would never forgive such impiety.

Thus also, when St. Paul went into the temple to give public notice, as was usual, to the priests, of his having purified and bound himself with a religious vow along with four other persons, declaring the time when this vow was made, and the oblations he would offer for every one of them at his own expense when the time of their vow

¹ John ii. 19.

² Matt. xxvi. 61. "This fellow said, I am able to destroy the temple of God and to build it in three days."

³ Acts i. 13.

was accomplished, some Jews of Asia Minor, when the seven days prescribed by the law were almost completed, happening to see him in the temple, struck with horror at the sight of such apprehended profanation, immediately excited the populace, who all at once rushed upon him and instantly seized him, vehemently exclaiming, *Men of Israel, help! This is the man that teacheth all men every where against the people, (the Jews,) and the law, and this place; and, further, brought Greeks into the temple, and hath polluted this holy place.*¹ They said this, because they had a little before seen Trophimus an Ephesian along with him in the city, and they instantly concluded he had brought him into the temple. Upon this the whole city was immediately raised; all the people at once rushed furiously upon him, and dragged him out of the temple, whose doors were instantly shut. Being determined to murder him, news was carried to the Roman tribune that the whole city was in a commotion. The uproar now raised among the Jews, and their determined resolution to imbrue their hands in the blood of a person who had spoken disrespectfully of the temple, and who they apprehended had wantonly profaned it by introducing Greeks into it, verify and illustrate the declaration of Philo; that it was certain and inevitable death for any one who was not a Jew to set his foot within the inner courts of the temple.²

It only remains to add, that it appears from several passages of Scripture, that the Jews had a body of soldiers who guarded the temple, to prevent any disturbance during the ministration of such an immense number of priests and Levites. To this guard Pilate referred, when he said to the chief priests and Pharisees who waited upon him to desire he would make the sepulchre secure, *Ye have a watch³, go your way, and make it as secure as ye can.* Over these guards one person had the supreme command, who in several places is called the captain of the temple, or officer of the temple guard. “And as they spake unto the people, the priests and the captain of the temple and the Sadducees came upon them.” (Acts iv. 1. v. 25, 26. John xviii. 12.) Josephus mentions such an officer.⁴

SECTION III.

OF THE HIGH PLACES, AND PROSEUCHÆ, OR ORATORIES OF THE JEWS.

I. Of the High Places.—II. Of the Proseuchæ, or Oratories.

BESIDES the tabernacle, which has been described in a former section, the Old Testament makes frequent mention of places of

¹ Act xxi. 28.

² Θάνατος απαραίτητος ὁρίσται πρὸς τοὺς εἰς τοὺς ἐντος περιβόλους παρελθόντων—τῶν οὐχ ὁμοεθνῶν. Philo, Legat. ad Cæsar. p. 577. edit. Mangey.

³ Matt. xxvii. 65. Ἐχετε κρουσθῆναι, Ye have a guard. See Lamy's Apparatus Biblicus, vol. i. p. 267.

⁴ Τὸν στρατηγὸν Ἀνανίαν, Ananias. the commander of the temple. Antiq. Jud. lib. xx. c. vi. § 2. Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. 17. § 2. Αφωρωντες εἰς τὸν Ἐλεάζαρον στρατηγόντα, having the chief regard to Eleazer, the governor of the temple. Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. 17. § 2. edit. Hudson. Harwood's Introd. vol. ii. p. 166. 170. and Dr. Lardner's Credibility, book i. ch. xi. § 1. ch. ix. § 4.

worship, called *High places*, which were in use both before and after the building of the temple. In the early ages of the world, the devotion of mankind seems to have delighted greatly in groves, woods, and mountains, not only because these retired places were naturally fitted for contemplation, but probably also because they kindled a certain sacred dread in the mind of the worshipper. It is certain that nothing was more antient in the East, than altars surrounded by groves and trees, which made the place very shady and delightful in those hot countries. The idolaters in the first ages of the world, who generally worshipped the sun, appear to have thought it improper to straiten and confine the supposed infiniteness of this imaginary deity within walls, and therefore they generally made choice of hills and mountains, as the most convenient places for their idolatry; and when in after-times they had brought in the use of temples, yet for a long time they kept them open-roofed. Nay, the patriarchs themselves, who worshipped the true God, generally built their altars near to some adjacent grove of trees, which, if nature denied, were usually planted by the religious in those days. When Abraham dwelt at Beersheba, in the plains of Mamre, it is said, *He planted a grove there, and called upon the name of the Lord the everlasting God* (Gen. xxi. 33.), and doubtless that was the place to which the patriarch and his family resorted for public worship.¹

But at length these hills and groves of the heathen idolaters, as they were more retired and shady, became so much the fitter for the exercise of their diabolical rites, and for the commission of the obscene and horrid practices that were usually perpetrated there; for they came at length to be places purposely set apart for prostitution. In many passages of Scripture it is recorded of the Israelites (who in this respect imitated the heathens) that they secretly did the things which were not right, that they set up images and groves in every high hill, and under every green tree, and there burnt incense in all the high places, and *wrought wickedness to provoke the Lord, as did the heathen.* (2 Kings xvii. 9—12.) On this account therefore God expressly commanded the Israelites, that they should utterly destroy all the places wherein the nations of Canaan, whose land they should possess, served their gods upon the high mountains and upon the hills: and to pay their devotions and bring their oblations to that place **only** which God should choose. (Deut. xii. 2—15.) Nay, to prevent every approach to the idolatrous customs of the heathens, they were forbidden to plant any trees near the altar of the Lord. (Deut. xvi. 21.)

It was not therefore from any dislike of hills or groves, that God prohibited the offering of sacrifices there, or that pious kings so zealously suppressed and destroyed them, but because God intended to keep up an *unity in the place of worship* among his people, (at least in sacrificing) as the best preservative against idolatry: for

¹ Many antient nations used to erect altars and offer sacrifices to their gods upon high places and mountains: See the examples adduced in Burder's *Oriental Literature*, vol. i. p. 233. &c.

as the Israelites were a people naturally inclined to *go a whoring after other gods*, and were under great temptations of doing so, from the practice of the Canaanites who lived among them, and were gross idolaters, it gave them too visible an advantage of following these abominations, when every one was at liberty to offer sacrifices where he pleased, and without proper restrictions in the way and manner of doing it. And as the imitation of the heathens in their places of worship was one step towards their idolatry, so it was a considerable advance towards the commission of all the gross obscenities, which these places of darkness and obscurity afforded; and we may readily conclude that if once they fell into the same religion, they would also fall into the same immoral practices which that religion taught them to be acceptable to their gods. Now, that wickedness of the grossest sort did attend the idolatrous worship in such places, is sufficiently evident from 1 Kings xv. 12. 2 Kings xxiii. 7. Rom. i. 21. 28., &c.

It is therefore clear from the command of God, so pathetically enforced in the above-cited text (Deut. xii. 2—15.), that after God should fix upon a place for his public worship, it was entirely unlawful to offer sacrifices upon high places, or any where else but in the place God did choose: so that after the building of the temple, the prohibition of high places and groves (so far at least as concerned the sacrificing in them) unquestionably took place. And it was for their disobedience to this command, by their sacrificing upon high places and in groves, even after the temple was erected (2 Kings xv. 35.), and for not destroying the high places of the heathens, where their idol gods were worshipped, which by that command and in many other places of Scripture (Numb. xxxiii. 52.), they were expressly appointed to do;—that the prophets with so much holy zeal reproached the Israelites. We have indeed several instances in Scripture besides that of Abraham, where the prophets and other good men are said to have made use of these high places for sacrificing, as well as other less solemn acts of devotion, and which are not condemned. Thus, Samuel, upon the uncertain abode of the ark, fitted up a place of devotion for himself and his family in a high place, and built an altar there, and sacrificed upon it. (1 Sam. ix. 12. 19. 23.) Gideon also built an altar and offered a sacrifice to God upon the top of a rock (Judg. vi. 25, 26.); and the tabernacle itself was removed to the high place that was at Gibeon. (1 Chron. xvi. 39. and xxi. 29.) But all this was *before* the temple was erected, which was the first fixed place that God appointed for his public worship; after which other places for sacrificing became unlawful.

That the Israelites, both kings and people, offered sacrifices upon these high places even after the temple was built, will evidently appear by noticing a few passages in their history; for (not to mention Jeroboam and his successors in the kingdom of Israel, whose professed purpose was to innovate every thing in matters of religion, and who had peculiar priests whom they termed prophets of the

groves, 1 Kings xviii. 19.), it is clear that most of the Kings of Judah, — even such of them who were otherwise zealous for the observance of the law,—are expressly recorded as blameable on this head, and but few have the commendation given them of destroying these high places. No sooner had Rehoboam the son of Solomon, after the revolt of the ten tribes from him, strengthened himself in his kingdom, but we read that Judah *did evil in the sight of the Lord, and built them high places, and images, and groves, on every high hill, and under every green tree.* (Kings xiv. 22, 23.)

In the reign of Asa, his grandson, things took another turn, for of him it is said, that he *took away the altars of the strange gods, and the high places, and brake down the images, and cut down the groves* (2 Chron. xiv. 3.), even without sparing those of his mother (xv. 16.), which passage seems to be contradicted by 1 Kings xv. 14. It should, however, be recollected that there were two kinds of high places, one frequented even by devout worshippers who lived at a distance from Jerusalem, and made use of by them in sacrificing, and for other religious purposes; and which were tolerated contrary to the divine command by such of their kings who otherwise are said to be pious princes. The other kind of high places were such as were considered as abominable from their first institution, and made the receptacle of idolatry and wickedness. These last were the high places which Asa took away: but those where God alone was worshipped, had obtained so long, and were looked upon with so sacred a veneration, that for fear of giving a general offence he did not venture to abolish them. But however well-meaning the pious intentions of good people in this respect were, yet the conduct of their kings was highly blameable in giving the least countenance to it, as being contrary to the divine command. The truth is, these high places were famous either for the apparition of angels, or some other miraculous event; or they had either been places of abode for the ark of the Lord, or those in which some prophet or patriarch of old had been accustomed to pray and sacrifice, and therefore they were regarded as consecrated to the service of God; nor was there strength enough in the government to overcome this inveterate prejudice, till Hezekiah and Josiah arose, who (to prevent the calamities that were coming on the nation) had the courage to effect a thorough reformation.

Towards the conclusion of Asa's reign, when he grew more infirm in body, and perhaps more remiss in the cause of God, it appears that these wicked high places began to be renewed; for it is said of Jehoshaphat his son, that *he took away the high places and groves out of Judah* (2 Chron. xvii. 6.), which after all we must understand, either of his having given orders only to have them taken away, or having seen it done but in part, without totally removing such as devout worshippers frequented; for afterwards, when his character comes to be summed up, there is this reservation (possibly more through the fault of his subjects than himself,) *howbeit the high places were not taken away.* (2 Chron. xx. 33.)

Of Jehoshaphat's son and successor Jehoram, it is said, *that he made high places in the mountains of Judah.* (2 Chron. xxi. 11.) And though Joash, one of his sons, set out well, yet in the latter part of his life he was perverted by his idolatrous courtiers, who served groves and idols, to whom it appears he gave a permission for that purpose; for after making their obeisance we are told, *that he hearkened to them, and then they left the house of God.* (2 Chron. xxiv. 17, 18.) Nor was the reign of Amaziah the son of Joash any better, for still the people *sacrificed and burnt incense on the high places* (2 Kings xiv. 4.); and though Uzziah his son is said to have done *that which was right in the sight of God*, yet this exception appears against him, *that the high places were not removed, but the people still sacrificed there* (2 Kings xv. 3, 4.); the same observation is made of Jotham and Ahaz. (2 Chron. xxviii. 4.) But Hezekiah who succeeded him was a prince of extraordinary piety: he *removed the high places, and brake the images, and cut down the groves* (2 Kings xviii. 4.), *which his son Manasseh again built up.* (2 Kings xxi. 2.) At length good king Josiah, a prince very zealous for the true religion, utterly cleared the land from the high places and groves, and purged it from idolatry: but as the four succeeding reigns before the Babylonian captivity were very wicked, we may presume that the high places were again revived, though there is no mention of them after the reign of Josiah.

II. From the preceding facts and remarks, however, we are not to conclude, that the prohibition relating to high places and groves, which extended chiefly to the more solemn acts of sacrificing there, did on any account extend to the prohibiting of other acts of devotion, particularly *prayer*, in any other place besides the temple, the high places and groves of the heathen (which were ordered to be raised) only excepted. For we learn from the sacred writings, that prayers are always acceptable to God in every place, when performed with a true and sincere devotion of heart, which alone gives life and vigour to our religious addresses. And therefore it was that in many places of Judæa, both before and after the Babylonian captivity, we find mention made in the Jewish and other histories of places built purposely for prayer, and resorted to only for that end, called *proseuchæ* or *oratories*.

These places of worship were **very common** in Judæa (and it should seem in retired mountainous or elevated places) in the time of Christ: they were also numerous at Alexandria, which was at that time a large and flourishing commercial city, inhabited by vast numbers of Jews: and it appears that in heathen countries they were erected in sequestered retreats, commonly on the banks of rivers, or on the sea-shore. The *proseucha* or oratory at Philippi, where *the Lord opened the heart of Lydia, that she attended unto the things which were spoken by Paul*, was by a river side. (Acts xvi. 13, 14, 15.) And Josephus has preserved the decree of the city of Halicarnassus, permitting the Jews to erect oratories, part of which is in the following terms:—"We ordain, that the Jews who are

willing, both men and women, do observe the sabbaths and perform sacred rites according to the Jewish law, and *build proseuchæ by the sea-side, according to the custom of their country*; and if any man whether magistrate or private person, give them any hinderance or disturbance, he shall pay a fine to the city.”¹

It is a question with some learned men, whether these *proseuchæ* were the same as the synagogues (of which an account will be found in the following section), or distinct edifices from the latter. Both Josephus and Philo, to whom we may add Juvenal, appear to have considered them as synonymous; and with them agree Grotius, Ernesti, Drs. Whitby, Doddridge, and Lardner²; but Calmet, Drs. Prideaux and Hammond, and others, have distinguished between these two sorts of buildings, and have shewn that though they were *nearly* the same, and were sometimes confounded by Philo and Josephus, yet that there was a real difference between them; the synagogues being in cities, while the *proseuchæ* were without the walls, in sequestered spots, and (particularly in heathen countries) were usually erected on the banks of rivers, or on the sea-shore (Acts xvi. 13.), without any covering but galleries or the shade of trees. Dr. Prideaux thinks the *proseuchæ* were of greater antiquity than the synagogues, and were formed by the Jews in open courts, in order that those persons who dwelt at a distance from Jerusalem might offer up their private prayers in them as they were accustomed to do in the courts of the temple or of the tabernacle. In the synagogues, he further observes, the prayers were offered up in public forms, while the *proseuchæ* were appropriated to private devotions: and from the oratory, where our Saviour spent a whole night in prayer, being erected on a mountain (Luke vi. 12.), it is highly probable that these *proseuchæ* were the same as the high places, so often mentioned in the Old Testament.³

SECTION IV.

ON THE SYNAGOGUES.

I. *Nature and Origin of Synagogues.*—II. *The Synagogue of the Libertines explained.*—III. *Form of the Synagogues.*—IV. *The Officers or Ministers.*—V. *The Service performed in the Synagogues.*—VI. *On what Days performed.*—VII. *Ecclesiastical Power of the Synagogues.*—VIII. *The Shemoneh Esreh, or Nineteen Prayers used in the Synagogue Service.*

I. **THE** *Synagogues* were buildings in which the Jews assembled for prayer, reading and hearing the Sacred Scriptures, and other

¹ Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xiv. c. 10. (al. 24.)

² Philo de Legatione ad Caium, p. 1011. Josephus de vita sua, § 54. Juvenal, Sat. iii. 14. Grotius, Whitby, and Doddridge on Luke vi. 12. Ernesti Institutio Interpretis Novi Testamenti, pp. 363, 364. edit. 4ta. 1792. Lardner's Credibility, book i. c. iii. § 3. Dr. Harwood's Introduction to the New Testament, vol. ii. pp. 171—180.

³ Dr. Hammond on Luke vi. 12. and Acts xvi. 13—16. Calmet's Diet. voce Proseucha. Prideaux's Connection, part i: book vi. sub anno 444. vol. i. pp. 387—390. edit. 1790.

instructions. Though frequently mentioned in the historical books of the New Testament, their origin is not very well known; and many learned men are of opinion that they are of recent institution.

Although sacrifices could only be offered at the holy tabernacle or temple, yet it does not appear that the Jews were restricted to any particular place for the performance of other exercises of devotion. Hence formerly, the praises of Jehovah were sung in the schools of the prophets, which the more devout Israelites seem to have frequented on sabbath days and new moons for the purpose of instruction and prayer. (1 Sam. x. 5—11. xix. 18—24. 2 Kings iv. 23.) During the Babylonish captivity, the Jews, being deprived of the solemn ordinances of divine worship, resorted to the house of some prophet, or other holy man, who was in the practice of giving religious instruction to his own family, and of reading the Scriptures. (Compare Ezek. xiv. 1. and xx. 1. with Neh. viii. 18.) At length these domestic congregations became fixed in certain places, and a regular order of conducting divine worship was introduced. Philo¹ thinks these edifices were originally instituted by Moses: but as no mention is made of them during the time of Antiochus Epiphanes, their origin in Jerusalem is referred to the reigns of the Asmonæan princes, under whom they were first erected, and were soon greatly multiplied; though in Alexandria and other foreign places, where the Jews were dispersed, they were certainly of much greater antiquity.²

In the time of the Maccabees, synagogues became so frequent, that they were to be found in almost every place in Judæa. Maimonides³ says, that wherever any Jews were, they erected a synagogue. Not fewer than four hundred and eighty are said to have been erected in Jerusalem, previously to its capture and destruction by the Romans. In the evangelical history we find, that wherever the Jews resided, they had one or more synagogues, constructed after those at Jerusalem. Hence we find, in Acts vi. 9. synagogues belonging to the Alexandrians, the Asiatics, the Cilicians, the Libertines, and the Cyrenians, which were erected for such Jewish inhabitants of those cities, as should happen to be at Jerusalem.

With regard to the synagogue of the Libertines, a considerable difference of opinion exists among the learned, whether these Libertines were the children of freed men (Italian Jews or proselytes), or African Jews from the city or country called Libertus, or Libertina, near Carthage. The former opinion is supported by Grotius and Vitringa; the latter (which was first hinted by Occumenius, a commentator in the close of the tenth century), by professor Gerdes, Wetstein, Bishop Pearce, and Schleusner.

It is well known that the ancient Romans made a distinction between the *Liberti* and the *Libertini*. The *Libertus* was one who

¹ Philo, De Vita Mosis, lib. iii. p. 685.

² Josephus, De Bell. Jud. lib. vii. c. 9. § 2.

³ In Tephilla, c. 11.

had been a slave, and obtained his freedom¹; the *Libertinus* was the son of a *Libertus*.² But this distinction in after ages was not strictly observed; and *Libertinus* also came to be used for one not born but made free, in opposition to *Ingenuus*, or *one born free*.³ Whether the *Libertini* mentioned in this passage of the Acts, were Gentiles, who had become proselytes to Judaism, or native Jews, who having been made slaves to the Romans were afterwards set at liberty⁴, and in remembrance of their captivity called themselves *Libertini*, and formed a synagogue by themselves, is differently conjectured by the learned. It is probable, that the Jews of Cyrenia, Alexandria, &c. erected synagogues at Jerusalem at their own charge, for the use of their brethren who came from those countries, as the Danes, Swedes, &c. have built churches for the use of their own countrymen in London; and that the Italian Jews did the same; and because the greatest number of them were *Libertini*, their synagogue was therefore called the synagogue of the *Libertines*.

In support of the second opinion above noticed, viz. that the *Libertines* derived their name from *Libertus* or *Libertina*, a city in Africa, it is urged that Suidas in his Lexicon, on the word *Λιβερτινός*, says, that it was *ὀνομα εθνούς*, a national appellative; and that the *Glossa interlinearis*, of which Nicholas de Lyra made great use in his notes, has, over the word *Libertini*, *e regione*, denoting that they were so styled from a country. Further, in the acts of the celebrated conference with the Donatists at Carthage, anno 411, there is mentioned one Victor, bishop of the Church of *Libertina*; and in the acts of the Lateran council, which was held in 649, there is mention of *Januarius gratia Dei episcopus sanctæ ecclesiæ Libertinensis*, Januarius, by the grace of God, bishop of the holy church of *Libertina*; and therefore Fabricius in his Geographical Index of Christian Bishoprics, has placed *Libertina* in what was called *Africa propria*, or the proconsular province of Africa. Now, as all the other people of the several synagogues, mentioned in this passage of the Acts, are called from the places whence they came, it is pro-

¹ Cives Romani sunt Liberti, qui vindictâ, censu aut testamento, nullo jure impediante manumissi sunt. Ulpian. tit. 1. § 6.

² This appears from the following passage of Suetonius concerning Claudius, who, he says, was, ignarus temporibus Appii, et deinceps aliquamdiu Libertinos dictos, non ipsos, qui manumitterentur, sed ingenues ex his procreatos. In vita Claudii, cap. xxiv. § 4. p. 78. Pitisci.

³ Quintilian. de Institutione Oratoria, lib. v. cap. x. p. 246. edit. Gibson, 1693. Qui servus est, si manumittatur fit Libertinus — Justinian. Institut. lib. i. tit. v. Libertini sunt, qui ex justa servitute manumissi sunt. Tit. iv. Ingenuus est is, qui statim ut natus est, liber est; sive ex duobus ingenuis matrimonio aditus est, sive ex libertinis duobus, sive ex altero libertino, et altero ingenuo.

⁴ Of these there were great numbers at Rome. Tacitus informs us (Anal. lib. ii. cap. lxxv.) that four thousand *Libertini*, of the Jewish superstition, as he styles it, were banished at one time, by order of Tiberius, into Sardinia; and the rest commanded to quit Italy, if they did not abjure, by a certain day. See also Suetonius in vita Tiberii, cap. xxxvi. Josephus (Antiq. lib. xviii. cap. iii. § 5. edit. Haverc.) mentions the same fact. And Philo (Legat. ad Caium. p. 785. C. edit. Colon. 1613.) speaks of a good part of the city beyond the Tiber, as inhabited by Jews, who were mostly *Libertini*, having been brought to Rome as captives and slaves, but, being made free by their masters, were permitted to live according to their own rites and customs.

bable that the Libertines were denominated in like manner; and as the Cyrenians and Alexandrians, who came from Africa, are placed next to the Libertines in that catalogue, the supporters of this opinion think it probable that they also belonged to the same country. But we have no evidence to shew that there were any natives of this place at Jerusalem, at the period referred to in the Acts of the Apostles. On the contrary, as it is well known that, only about fifteen years before, great numbers of Jews, emancipated slaves, or their sons, were banished from Rome, it is most likely that the Libertines mentioned by Luke were of the latter description, especially as his account is corroborated by two Roman historians.¹

II. It does not appear from the New Testament that the synagogues had any peculiar form. The building of them was regarded as a mark of piety (Luke vii. 5.): and they were erected within or without the city, generally in an elevated place, and were distinguished from the proseuchæ by being roofed. Each of them had an altar, or rather table, on which the book of the law was spread; and on the east side there was an ark or chest, in which the volume of the law was deposited. The seats were so disposed that the people always sat with their faces towards the elders, and the place where the law was kept: and the elders sat in the opposite direction, that is to say, with their backs to the ark and their faces to the people. The seats of the latter, as being placed nearer the ark, were accounted the more holy, and hence they are in the New Testament termed the *chief seats in the synagogue*; which the Pharisees affected; and for which our Lord inveighed against them. (Matt. xxiii. 6.) A similar precedence seems to have crept into the places of worship even of the very first Christians, and hence we may account for the indignation of the apostle James (ii. 3.) against the undue preference that was given to the rich. The women were separated from the men, and sat in a gallery inclosed with lattices, so that they could distinctly see and hear all that passed in the synagogue, without themselves being exposed to view.

III. For the maintenance of good order, there were in every synagogue certain officers, whose business it was to see that all the duties of religion were decently performed therein. These were, 1. The *Ἀρχισυναγωγός*, or ruler of the synagogue. (Luke xiii. 14. Mark v. 22.) It appears from Acts xiii. 15., collated with Mark v. 22. and John vi. 59., that there were several of these rulers in a synagogue. They regulated all its concerns, and gave permission to persons to preach. They were always men advanced in age, and respectable for their learning and probity. The Jews termed them *Hacamin*, that is, *sages or wise men*, and they possessed considerable influence and authority. They were judges of thefts, and similar petty offences: and to them Saint Paul is supposed to allude in 1 Cor. vi. 5, where he reproaches the Corinthian Christians with carrying their differences before the tribunals of the Gentiles, as if

¹ See Vol. I. p. 196.

they had no persons among them who were capable of determining them. *Is it so*, says he, *that there is not a WISE MAN among you? no, not one that shall be able to judge between his brethren?* These rulers likewise had the power of inflicting punishment on those whom they judged to be rebellious against the law; in allusion to which circumstance Christ forewarned his disciples that they *should be scourged in the synagogues*. (Matt. x. 17.)

2. Next to the *Ἀρχισυναγώγος*, or ruler of the synagogue, was an officer, whose province it was to offer up public prayers to God for the whole congregation: hence he was called *Sheliach Zibbor*, or, the angel of the church, because, as their messenger, he spoke to God for them. Hence also, in Rev. ii. iii. the ministers of the Asiatic churches are termed *angels*.

3. The *Chazan* appears to have been a different officer from the *Sheliach Zibbor*, and inferior to him in dignity. He seems to have been the person, who in Luke iv. 20. is termed *ὀψιμαστής*, the *minister*, and who had the charge of the sacred books.

IV. The service performed in the synagogue consisted of three parts, viz. prayer, reading the Scriptures, and preaching, or exposition of the Scriptures.

1. The first part of the synagogue service is *Prayer*; for the performance of which, according to Dr. Prideaux, they had liturgies, in which are all the prescribed forms of the synagogue worship. The most solemn part of these prayers are the *שמונה עשרה* (*SHEMONEH ESREH*), or the eighteen prayers, which, according to the rabbies, were composed and instituted by Ezra, in order that the Jews, whose language after the captivity was corrupted with many barbarous terms borrowed from other languages, might be able to perform their devotions in the pure language of their own country. Such is the account which Maimonides gives, out of the Gemara, of the origin of the Jewish liturgies: and the eighteen collects, in particular, are mentioned in the Mishna. However, some better evidence than that of the talmudical rabbies is requisite, in order to prove their liturgies to be of so high an antiquity; especially since some of their prayers, as Dr. Prideaux acknowledges, seem to have been composed after the destruction of Jerusalem, and to have reference to it. It is evident they were composed when there was neither temple nor sacrifice; since the seventeenth collect prays, that God would restore his worship to the inner part of his house, and make haste, with fervour and love, to accept the burnt sacrifices of Israel, &c. They could not, therefore, be the composition of Ezra, who did not receive his commission from Artaxerxes to go to

1. The fifth, tenth, eleventh, and fourteenth collects have the same allusion and reference as the seventeenth. See the original prayers in Maimonides de Ordine Precum, or in Vitringa, (de Synag. veter. lib. iii. art. ii. cap. xiv. pp. 1033—1038.) who observes, that the talmudists will have the seventeenth collect, which prays for the restoration of the temple, (reddere voluit Leviticum in Aduer. Domus tue, as he translates it) recited by the king in the temple at the feast of tabernacles; and that it confutes itself, and shews how little the Jewish tradition of the antiquity and use of their liturgies are to be depended upon.

Judæa, till more than fifty years after the second temple was built, and its worship restored. The probability is, that the forms of prayer for the synagogue worship were at first very few, and that *some were in use in the time of Jesus Christ*, the number of which was subsequently increased. To the eighteen prayers above-mentioned, another was added, a short time before the destruction of the second temple, by Rabbi Gamaliel, or, according to some writers, by Rabbi Samuel, one of his scholars. It is directed against apostates and heretics, appellations which the Jews liberally employ to designate all Christians, whether of Jewish or of Gentile descent. This additional prayer is now inserted as the twelfth, and the number is nineteen. They are required to be said by all Jews without exception, who are of age, three times every day, either in public at the synagogue, or at their own houses, or wherever they may happen to be. As some readers may be curious to see them, they are subjoined, at the end of this section.¹

2. The second part of the synagogue service is the *Reading of the Scriptures*, which is of three sorts, the *Kirioth-Shema*, — the reading of the whole law of Moses, and portions out of the prophets and the Hagiographa or holy writings.

(1.) The *Kirioth-Shema*, consists of three portions of Scripture, viz Deut. vi. 6—9. Deut. xi. 13—21. Numb. xv. 37—41. As the first of these portions commences with the word *shema*, that is, *hear*, they are collectively termed the Shema, and the reading of them is called *kirioth-shema*, or the reading of the Shema. This reading or recital is preceded and followed by several prayers and benedictions; and, next to the saying of the nineteen prayers above noticed, is the most solemn part of the religious service of the Jews; who, believing the commands in Deut. vi. 7. and xi. 19. to be of perpetual obligation, repeat the Shema daily, every morning and evening.

(2.) The *Law* was divided into fifty-three, according to the *Massorets*, or, according to others, fifty-four *Paraschioth* or sections: for the Jewish year consisted of twelve lunar months, alternately of twenty-nine or thirty days, that is, of fifty weeks and four days. The Jews, therefore, in their division of the law into *Paraschioth* or sections, had a respect to their intercalary year, which was every second or third, and consisted of thirteen months; so that the whole law was read over this year, allotting one *Paraschioth* or section to every Sabbath; and in common years they reduced the fifty-three or fifty-four sections to the number of the fifty Sabbaths, by reading two shorter ones together, as often as there was occasion. They began the course of reading the first Sabbath after the feast of *Cabernacles*; or rather, indeed, on the Sabbath day before that, when they finished the last course of reading, they also made a beginning of the new course; that so, as the rabbies say, the devil might not accuse them to God of being weary of reading his law.

(3.) The portions selected out of the prophetic writings are termed *Hapthoroth*. When Antiochus Epiphanes conquered the Jews about the year 163 before the Christian æra, he prohibited the public reading of the law in the synagogues, on pain of death. The Jews, in order that they might not be wholly deprived of the word of God, selected from other parts of the Sacred Writings, *fifty-four* portions, which were termed HAPHTORAS, חַפְטוֹרוֹת (*HAPHTOROTH*), from פָּטַר (*patar*), he *dismissed, let loose, opened*—for though the Law was *dismissed* from their synagogues, and was *closed* to them by the edict of this persecuting king, yet the *prophetic*

A GENERAL VIEW OF ALL THE SECTIONS OF THE LAW, AND SYNAGOGUES FOR EVERY

PARASCHIOTH, or Sections of the Law.

SECT. GENESIS.

i.	ברשית Bereshith,	-	-	i. 1. to vi. 8.
ii.	הלכות נח Toledoth noach,	-	-	vi. 9. to xi. 32.
iii.	לך לך Lec leca,	-	-	xii. 1. to xvii. 27.
iv.	וירא Vaiyera,	-	-	xviii. 1. to xxii. 21.
v.	חייח Sarah Chaiyeh Sarah,	-	-	xxiii. 1. to xxv. 18.
vi.	הלכה Toledoth,	-	-	xxv. 19. to xxviii. 9.
vii.	ויצא Vaiyetse,	-	-	xxviii. 10. to xxxii. 3.
viii.	וישלח Vaiyishlach,	-	-	xxxii. 4. to xxxvi. 43.
ix.	וישב Vaiyeshab,	-	-	xxxvii. 1. to xl. 23.
x.	מקץ Mikets,	-	-	xli. 1. to xlv. 17.
xi.	ויגש Vaiyiggash,	-	-	xlv. 18. to xlvii. 27.
xii.	ויחי Vayechi,	-	-	xlvii. 28. to l. 26.

EXODUS.

xiii.	שמות Shemoth,	-	-	i. 1. to vi. 1.
xiv.	וארא Vaera,	-	-	vi. 2. to ix. 35.
xv.	בא אל פרעה Bo el Paraoh,	-	-	x. 1. to xiii. 16.
xvi.	בשלח Beshalach,	-	-	xiii. 17. to xvii. 16.
xvii.	יחרי Yithro,	-	-	xviii. 1. to xx. 26.
xviii.	משפטים Mishpatim,	-	-	xxi. 1. to xxiv. 48.
xix.	תרומה Terumah,	-	-	xxv. 1. to xxvii. 19.
xx.	תצוה Tetsaveh,	-	-	xxvii. 20. to xxx. 10.
xxi.	כי תשא Kei tissa,	-	-	xxx. 11. to xxxiv. 35.
xxii.	ויקח Vaiyakhel,	-	-	xxxv. 1. to xxxviii. 20.
xxiii.	פקודי Pekudey,	-	-	xxxviii. 21. to xl. 38.

LEVITICUS.

xxiv.	ויקרא Vaiyikra,	-	-	i. 1. to vi. 7.
xxv.	ויקרא צו Vaiyikra Tsau,	-	-	vi. 8. to viii. 36.
xxvi.	שמיני Shemini,	-	-	ix. 1. to xi. 47.
xxvii.	תזריע Tazrieh,	-	-	xii. 1. to xiii. 59.
xxviii.	מצרע Metsorah,	-	-	xiv. 1. to xv. 33.
xxix.	אחרי מות Acharey Moth,	-	-	xvi. 1. to xviii. 30.
xxx.	קדשים Kedushim,	-	-	xix. 1. to xx. 27.
xxxi.	אמר Emor,	-	-	xxi. 1. to xxiv. 23.
xxxii.	בהר סיני Behar Sinai,	-	-	xxv. 1. to xxvi. 2.
xxxiii.	בהקדש Bechukhtai,	-	-	xxvi. 3. to xxvii. 34.

NUMBERS.

xxxiv.	במדבר Bemidbar,	-	-	i. 1. to iv. 20.
xxxv.	נאסו Nasu,	-	-	iv. 21. to vii. 89.
xxxvi.	בהאלותיה Behaalotica,	-	-	viii. 1. to xii. 16.

writings, not being under the *interdict*, were left open : and therefore they used them in place of the others. It was from this custom of the Jews, that the primitive Christians adopted theirs, of reading a lesson every sabbath out of the Old and New Testaments. The following tables exhibit the *paraschioth* or sections of the law, and the *haphthoroth* or sections of the prophets (which were substituted for the former), as they have been read together ever since the days of the Asmonæans or Maccabees, and as they continue to be read in the various synagogues belonging to the English, Portuguese, Italian, Dutch, and German Jews.

SECTIONS OF THE PROPHETS, AS READ IN THE DIFFERENT JEWISH SABBATH OF THE YEAR.

HAPHTOROTH, or Sections of the Prophets.

Portuguese and Italian Jews.

Isa. xlii. 5—21. -
Isa. liv. 1—10. -
Isa. xl. 27—31. xli. 1—16.
2 Kings iv. 1—23. -
1 Kings i. 1—31. -
Mal. i. 1—14. ii. 1—7.
Hos. xi. 7—12. xii. 1—11.
Obad. i. 1—21. -
Amos ii. 1—16. iii. 1—8.
1 Kings iii. 15—28. iv. 1.
Ezek. xxxvii. 15—28.
1 Kings ii. 1—12. -

Jer. i. 1—19. ii. 1—3. -
Ezek. xxviii. 25. to xxix. 21. -
Jer. xvi. 13—28. -
Judg. v. 1—31. -
Isa. vi. 1—31. -
Jer. xxxiv. 8—22. and xxxiii. 25, 26.
1 Kings v. 12—18. vi. 1—13.
Ezek. xliii. 10—27. -
1 Kings xviii. 20—39. -
1 Kings vii. 13—26. -
1 Kings vii. 40—50. -

Isa. xliii. 21—28. xliv. 1—25.
Jer. vii. 21—34. viii. 1—3. ix. 23, 24.
2 Sam. vi. 1—19. -
2 Kings iv. 42—44. v. 1—19. -
2 Kings vii. 3—20. -
Amos ix. 7—15. -
Ezek. xx. 2—20. -
Ezek. xlv. 15—31. -
Jer. xxxii. 6—27. -
Jer. xvi. 19—21. xvii. 1—14.

Hos. i. 10. ii. 1—20. -
Judg. xiii. 2—25. -
Zech. ii. 10—13. iii. 1—13. iv. 1—7.

German and Dutch Jews.

Isa. xlii. 5—25. xliii. 10.
Isa. liv. 1—17. lv. 1—5.
Ditto.
2 Kings iv. 1—37.
Ditto.
Ditto.
Ditto.
Hos. xii. 12—14. xiii. 1—16.
Ditto.
Ditto.
Ditto.
Ditto.

Isa. xxvii. 6. to xxix. 23.
Ditto.
Ditto.
Judg. iv. 4. to v. 1—31.
Isa. vi. 1—13. vii. 1—6. ix. 6, 7.
Ditto.
Ditto.
Ditto.
1 Kings xviii. 1—39.
1 Kings vii. 40—50.
1 Kings vii. 51. viii. 1—21.

Ditto.
Ditto.
2 Sam. vi. 1—23. vii. 1—17.
Ditto.
Ditto.
Ezek. xxii. 1—19.
Amos ix. 7—15.
Ditto.
Ditto.
Ditto.

Ditto.
Ditto.
Ditto.

PARASCHIOTH.

Sect.	NUMBERS — continued.			
xxxvii. שלך Shelach,	-	-	-	xiii. 1. to xv. 41.
xxxviii. קרח Korach,	-	-	-	xvi. 1. to xxiii. 32.
xxxix. חקה Chukath,	-	-	-	xix. 1. to xxii. 1.
xl. בלק Balak,	-	-	-	xxii. 2. to xxv. 9.
xli. פנחס Pinchas,	-	-	-	xxv. 10. to xxx. 1.
xlii. מטהו Mattoth,	-	-	-	xxx. 2. to xxxii. 42.
xliii. מסעי Maséy,	-	-	-	xxxiii. 1. to xxxvi. 13.

DEUTERONOMY.

xliv. דברים Debarim,	-	-	-	i. 1. to iii. 22.
xlv. ואחחנן Vaethchanan,	-	-	-	iii. 23. to vii. 11.
xlvi. עקב Ekeb,	-	-	-	vii. 12. to xi. 25.
xlvi. רעה Reeh,	-	-	-	xi. 26. to xvi. 17.
xlvi. שפטים Shophetim,	-	-	-	xvi. 18. to xxi. 9.
lix. תשא Tetse,	-	-	-	xxi. 10. to xxv. 19.
i. הבוא Tabo,	-	-	-	xxvi. 1. to xxix. 8.
li. נציבים Nitsabim,	-	-	-	xxix. 9. to xxx. 20.
lii. וילך Vaiyelec,	-	-	-	xxx. 1. to xxxi. 30.
liii. חזונו Haazinu,	-	-	-	xxxii. 1. to xxxiii. 52.
liv. וזות Habaracah,	-	-	-	xxxiii. 1. to xxxiv. 12.

In the synagogues of the Hellenists or Greek Jews, the law was always read in the Alexandrian or Greek version¹; but in those of the native Jews, the law was always read in Hebrew; whence it became necessary, as soon as that language ceased to be vernacular among the Jews, to establish an interpreter, by whom the Jewish Scriptures were expounded in the Chaldee dialect, which was spoken by them after the return from the Babylonian captivity.² The doctor or reader therefore, having the interpreter always by him, softly whispered in his ears what he said, and this interpreter repeated aloud to the people what had thus been communicated to him. To this custom our Saviour is supposed to have alluded when he said to his disciples, *What ye hear in the ear, that preach ye upon the house-tops.* (Matt. x. 27.)³

3. The third and last part of the synagogue service is, *Exposition of the Scriptures, and Preaching to the people from them.* The first was performed at the time of reading them, and the other after the reading of the law and the prophets. In Luke iv. 15—22. we have an account of the service of the synagogue in the time of Christ; from which it appears, that he taught the Jews in their synagogues in both these ways: *And he taught in their synagogues, being glorified of all. And he came to Nazareth, where he had been brought up; and as his custom was, he went into the synagogue on the sabbath day, and stood up for to read. And there was delivered unto him the book of the prophet Esaias: and when he had unrolled the volume⁴ he*

¹ Tertulliani. *Apologia*, c. 18.

² From this practice originated the Chaldee-Paraphrases, of which an account has been given in a former volume of this work.

³ Dr. Lightfoot's *Horæ Hebraicæ*, on Matt. x. 27.

⁴ *ἡ βιβλία* The word signifies to unfold, unroll. The books of the ancients were written on parchment and rolled up. Hence the word volume. *ἡ βιβλία* our

HAPHTOROTH.

Portuguese and Italian Jews.

Josh. ii. 1—24. - - -
 1 Sam. xi. 14, 15. xii. 1—22. -
 Judg. xi. 1—33. - - -
 Micah v. 7—15. vi. 1—8. -
 1 Kings xx. 46. xix. 1—21. -
 Jer. i. 1—19. ii. 1—8. -
 Jer. ii. 4—28. iv. 1, 2. -

German and Dutch Jews.

Amos ix. 7—15.
 Ditto.
 Ditto.
 Ditto.
 Ditto.
 Ditto.
 Jer. ii. 4—28. iii. 4.

Isa. i. 1—27. - - - Ditto.
 xl. 1—26. - - - Ditto.
 xlix. 14—26. l. 1—3. - - - Ditto.
 liv. 11—17. lv. 1—5. - - - Ditto.
 li. 12—23. lii. 1—12. - - - Ditto.
 liv. 1—10. - - - Ditto.
 lx. 1—22. - - - Ditto.
 lxi. 10, 11. lxii. 1—12. lxiii. 1—9. - - - Ditto.
 Hos. xiv. 1—9. Mic. vii. 18—20. - - - Isai. lv. 6—13. lvi. 1—8.
 2 Sam. xxii. 1—51. Some say Ezek. xvii. 22—24. xviii. 1—32. - - - Hos. xiv. 1—9. Joel ii. 1—27.
 Josh. i. 1—18. Eccles. i.—xii. inclusive. - - - Ditto.¹

found the place where it was written, “The Spirit of the Lord is upon me, because he hath anointed me to preach the Gospel to the poor; he hath sent me to heal the broken-hearted, to preach deliverance to the captives, and recovering of sight to the blind; to set at liberty them that are bruised; to preach the acceptable year of the Lord!” And he folded the volume², and he gave it again to the minister and sat down: and the eyes of all them that were in the synagogue were fastened on him. And he began to say unto them: This day is this Scripture fulfilled in your ears. And all bare him witness, and wondered at the gracious words that proceeded out of his mouth.

From this passage we learn, that when Jesus Christ came to Nazareth, his own city, he was called out, as a member of that synagogue, to read the haphthora, that is, the section or lesson out of the prophets for that day; which appears to have been the fifty-first haphthora, and to have commenced with the first verse of

αναπτύξαντες αὐτοὺς καὶ τῷ χεὶρ περιβαλόντες ἀλλήλοις; Why do we not unfold our arms, and clasp each other in them? Dion. Halicarn. lib. vi. p. 392. Hudson. Τὴν ἐπιστολὴν ἀναπτύξας, unfolding the letter. Josephus de vitâ sua, p. 21. Havercamp. Γράφας ἐς βιβλίον τὰ ἐβουλετο, ἀλὴν τῶν Ἱερῶν ἐποίησατο, μετὰ δὲ, ἀναπτύξας, τὸ βιβλίον [the very expression of the evangelist.] Herodotus, lib. i. c. 125. tom. i. p. 158. edit. Oxon. 1809. The sacred writings, used to this day in all the Jewish synagogues, are written on skins of basil, parchment, or vellum, pasted end to end, and rolled on two rollers, beginning at each end: so that, in reading from right to left, they roll off with the left, while they roll on with the right hand. (Dr. A. Clarke on Luke vi. 17.)

The above tables are copied from Dr. A. Clarke's Commentary on Deut. xxxiv., who states that he has in general followed the divisions in the best Masoretic Bibles, from which our common English Bibles in some cases will be found to vary a little. On the above tables, Dr. Clarke remarks, that though the Jews are agreed in the sections of the law that are read every sabbath; yet they are not agreed in the haphthora, or sections from the prophets; as it appears above, that the Dutch and German Jews differ in several cases from the Italian and Portuguese; and there are some slighter variations besides those above, which he has not noticed.

Isa. lxi. and not with the tenth, as in the table above given. "Have the Jews," asks an eminent commentator, "altered this haph Torah, knowing the use which our blessed Lord made of it among their ancestors?"¹ Further he stood up (as it was customary, at least for the officiating minister to do out of reverence for the word of God) to read the Scriptures; and unrolled the manuscript until he came to the lesson appointed for that day; which having read he rolled it up again, and gave it to the proper officer; and then he sat down and expounded it, agreeably to the usage of the Jews. In like manner, according to the custom of their public instructors, we find our Saviour *sitting down* (Matt. v. 1.) before he began to deliver his sermon on the mount to the assembled multitudes; and upon another occasion *sitting down*, and out of the ship teaching the people who were collected on the shore. (Matt. xiii. 1.) So also it is said of the scribes, who were the Jewish clergy, that they *sat* (Matt. xxiii. 2.) *in Moses' chair: Whatever therefore they bid you observe, that observe and do, but do not after their works, for they say and do not.* But when Christ entered any synagogue of which he was not a member (as it appears from Luke iv. 16. he always did on every sabbath day, wherever he was), he taught the people in sermons after the law and the prophets had been read.

It should seem also, at least in foreign countries where places of worship were established, that when strangers, who were Jews, arrived at such towns, and went to offer their devotions, it was usual for the presidents of the synagogue, after the appointed portion out of the law and the prophets was read, to send a servant to them, and in a very respectful manner to request that if they could impart any thing that might contribute to the religious instruction and edification of the audience, they would deliver it. This token of respect and politeness shewn to strangers, appears from the following passage in the Acts of the Apostles. (Acts xiii. 14, 15.) When Paul and his companions, on their arrival at Antioch in Pisidia, went into the Jewish synagogue on the sabbath day, and sat down after the reading of the law and the prophets, the rulers of the synagogue sent to them, saying, *Men and brethren, if ye have any word of exhortation for the people, say on.* Upon which Paul stood up, and beckoning with his hand, said, *Men of Israel, and ye that fear God, give audience.*

The synagogues, however, were not only places set apart for prayer: they were also schools where youth were instructed. The sages (for so were the teachers called) sat upon elevated benches, while the pupils stood at their feet or before them²; which cir-

¹ Dr. A. Clarke, on Deut. xxxiv.

² Fleury, Lamy, and other eminent critics, have supposed that the Jewish youth sat on low seats or on the ground, at the feet of their preceptors, who occupied a lofty chair; but Vitringa has shewn, from Jewish authority, that the disciples of the rabbins stood before them in the manner above represented. See his treatise de Synag. Vet. lib. i. p. 1. c. 7. *Observ. Sacrae*, in Nov. Pæd. Libros, vol. ii. pp. 114, 115.) has collected a variety of passages from Greek writers, to shew that the expression *παρα ταυς ποδας* at the feet, is equivalent to *πρὸς τὸν πόδον*, *near or before*.

cumstance explains St. Paul's meaning (Acts xxii. 3.) when he says that he was *brought up* AT THE FEET of Gamaliel.

V. Their synagogue days were the sabbath, and the second and fifth days of each week, answerable to our Saturday, Monday, and Thursday, besides their holy days. And their synagogue hours, on which divine service was performed, were thrice on each of these days, viz. in the morning, afternoon, and at night. For they held it to be a constant rule, that all were to pray unto God *three times* every day, after the example of David (Psal. lv. 17.), and of Daniel (Dan. vi. 10.); so that they reckoned themselves strictly bound to perform this somewhere every day, as well as on the synagogue days. If at home, they prayed there; and thus we are told that Cornelius was praying in his own house at the *ninth hour* of the day (that is, at the time of the evening sacrifice) when the angel appeared unto him. (Acts x. 30.) And in like manner Peter prayed about the *sixth hour*, when he had the vision of the great sheet. (Acts x. 9.) But if they were abroad, though in the market-place or in the street, at the usual hour of prayer, they made no difficulty of doing it there; and for this our Saviour re-proved them, *that they loved to pray standing in the corners of the streets* (Matt. vi. 5.), thereby affecting to be seen of men: but generally such whose leisure would allow them; went to the synagogue on the usual days of worship.

VI Those who had been guilty of any notorious crime, or were otherwise thought unworthy, were cast out of these synagogues, that is, excommunicated, and excluded from partaking with the rest in the public prayers and religious offices there performed; so that they were looked upon as mere Heathens, and shut out from all benefit of the Jewish religion, which exclusion was esteemed scandalous. We are told that the Jews came to a resolution, that *whoever confessed that Jesus was the Christ, he should be put out of the synagogue.* (John ix. 22.) And therefore when the blind man, who had been restored to sight, persisted in confessing that he believed the person who had been able to work such a miracle could not have done it, *if he were not of God, they cast him out.* (ver. 33, 34.)¹

VII. The following are the *Shemoneh Esreh*, or nineteen prayers of the Jews, referred to in page 243. as translated by Dr. Prideaux. That which was formerly the *nineteenth* is now the *twelfth* in the order in which they stand in the Jewish liturgies. The first or *precatory* part of each article was pronounced by the priest, and the last or *eucharistical* part was the response of the people.

¹ Lamy's Apparatus Biblicus, vol. ii. pp. 19—221. Prideaux's Connections, (book vi. sub anno 444.) vol. i. pp. 374—391. Fleury's Manners of the Israelites by Dr. Clarke, pp. 336—338. Dr. Harwood's Introd. to the New Test. vol. II. pp. 180—182. Schulzii Archaeol. Hebr. pp. 225, 226. Reland's Antiq. Hebr. part i. c. 10. pp. 126—140. Ikenii Antiq. Hebr. part i. c. 9. pp. 100—105. Schachtii Animadversiones ad Ikenii Antiq. Hebr. pp. 452—470. Lardner's Credibility, book i. c. 9. § 6. Pritii Introd. ad Nov. Test. pp. 447, 595. and Dr. Jennings's Jewish Antiquities, book ii. c. 2. pp. 271—285. On the synagogue worship of the Modern Jews, see Mr. Allen's Modern Judaism, pp. 319—354.

"1. Blessed be thou, O LORD our GOD, the GOD of our fathers, the GOD of Abraham, the GOD of Isaac, the GOD of Jacob, the great GOD, powerful and tremendous, the high GOD, bountifully dispensing benefits, the creator and possessor of the universe, who rememberest the good deeds of our fathers, and in thy love sendest a Redeemer to those who are descended from them, for thy name's sake, O King our LORD and helper, our Saviour and our shield. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD, who art the shield of Abraham.*

"2. Thou, O Lord, art powerful for ever; thou raisest the dead to life, and art mighty to save; thou sendest down the dew, stillest the winds, and makest the rain to come down upon the earth, and sustainest with thy beneficence all that are therein; and of thy abundant mercy makest the dead again to live. Thou raisest up those who fall; thou healest the sick, thou loosest them who are bound, and makest good thy word of truth to those who sleep in the dust. Who is to be compared to thee, O thou LORD of might! and who is like unto thee, O our king, who killest and makest alive, and makest salvation to spring as the grass in the field! Thou art faithful to make the dead to rise again to life. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD, who raisest the dead again to life!*

"3. Thou art holy, and thy name is holy, and thy saints do praise thee every day, Selah. For a great king and a holy art thou, O God. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD GOD, most holy!*

"4. Thou of thy mercy givest knowledge unto men, and teachest them understanding: give graciously unto us knowledge, wisdom, and understanding. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD, who graciously givest knowledge unto men!*

"5. Bring us back, O our Father, to the observance of thy law, and make us to adhere to thy precepts; and do thou, O our king, draw us near to thy worship, and convert us to thee by perfect repentance in thy presence. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD, who vouchsafest to receive us by repentance!*

"6. Be thou merciful unto us, O our Father: for we have sinned: pardon us, O our king, for we have transgressed against thee. For thou art a God, good and ready to pardon. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD most gracious, who multipliest thy mercies in the forgiveness of sins.*

"7. Look, we beseech thee, upon our afflictions. Be thou on our side in all our contentions, and plead thou our cause in all our litigations; and make haste to redeem us with a perfect redemption for thy name's sake. For thou art our God, our king, and a strong redeemer. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD, the redeemer of Israel!*

"8. Heal us, O LORD our GOD, and we shall be healed; save us, and we shall be saved. For thou art our praise. Bring unto us sound health, and a perfect remedy for all our infirmities, and for all our griefs, and for all our wounds. For thou art a God who healest and art merciful. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD our GOD, who curest the diseases of thy people Israel!*

"9. Bless us, O LORD our GOD, in every work of our hands,

and bless unto us the seasons of the year, and give us the dew and the rain to be a blessing unto us, upon the face of all our land, and satiate the world with thy blessings, and send down moisture upon every part of the earth that is habitable. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD, who givest thy blessing to the years!*

“10. Gather us together by the sound of the great trumpet, to the enjoyment of our liberty; and lift up thy ensign to call together all the captivity, from the four quarters of the earth into our own land. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD, who gatherest together the exiles of the people of Israel!*

“11. Restore unto us our judges as at the first, and our counsellors as at the beginning; and remove far from us affliction and trouble, and do thou only reign over us in benignity, and in mercy, and in righteousness, and in justice. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD our king, who lovest righteousness and justice!*

“12. ¹ Let there be no hope to them, who apostatise from the true religion; and let heretics, how many soever they be, all perish as in a moment. And let ² the kingdom of pride be speedily rooted out and broken in our days. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD our God, who destroyest the wicked, and bringest down the proud!*³

“13. Upon the pious and the just, and upon ⁴ the proselytes of justice, and upon the remnant of thy people of the house of Israel, let thy mercies be moved, O LORD our God, and give a good reward unto all who faithfully put their trust in thy name; and grant us our portion with them, and for ever let us not be ashamed, for we put our trust in thee. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD, who art the support and confidence of the just!*

“14. Dwell thou in the midst of Jerusalem, thy city, as thou hast promised: build it with a building to last for ever, and do this speedily even in our days. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD, who buildest Jerusalem!*

“15. Make the offspring of David thy servant speedily to grow up, and flourish; and let our horn be exalted in thy salvation. For we hope for thy salvation every day. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD, who makest the horn of our salvation to flourish!*

“16. Hear our voice, O LORD our God, most merciful Father, pardon and have mercy upon us, and accept of our prayers with

¹ This is the prayer which was added by Rabbi Gamaliel against the Christians, or as others say by Rabbi Samuel the Little, who was one of his scholars.

² The Roman empire.

³ The twelfth prayer, as now used by the Jews, varies considerably from that above given. In the Prayer Book of the German and Polish Jews, it stands thus:—“O let the slanderers have no hope, all the wicked be annihilated speedily, and all the tyrants be cut off quickly; humble thou them quickly in our days. *Blessed art thou, O Lord, who destroyest enemies and humblest tyrants.*” In the Prayer Book of the Spanish and Portuguese Jews, this prayer runs thus:—“Let slanderers have no hope, and all presumptuous apostates perish as in a moment, and may thine enemies, and those who hate thee, be suddenly cut off, and all those who act wickedly be suddenly broken; consumed, and rooted out; and humble thou them speedily in our days. *Blessed art thou, O Lord, who destroyest thine enemies and humblest the proud!*” Allen’s Modern Judaism, p. 329.

⁴ Concerning these supposed proselytes of justice, see pp. 255, 256. *infra*.

thy mercy and favour, and send us not away from thy presence, O our king. For thou hearest with mercy the prayer of thy people Israel. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD, who hearest prayer!*

“17. Be thou well pleased, O LORD our God, with thy people Israel; and have regard unto their prayers; restore thy worship to¹ the inner part of thy house, and make haste with favour and love to accept of the burnt sacrifices of Israel, and their prayers; and let the worship of Israel thy people be continually well pleasing unto thee. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD, who restorest thy divine presence to Zion!*

“18. We will give thanks unto thee with praise. For thou art the LORD our God, the God of our fathers, for ever and ever. Thou art our rock, and the rock of our life, and the shield of our salvation. To all generations will we give thanks unto thee, and declare thy praise, because of our life which is always in thy hands, and because of thy signs, which are every day with us, and because of thy wonders, and marvellous loving kindness, which are morning, and evening, and night before us. Thou art good, for thy mercies are not consumed; thou art merciful, for thy loving kindnesses fail not. For ever we hope in thee. And for all these mercies be thy name, O king, blessed and exalted, and lifted up on high for ever and ever; and let all that live give thanks unto thee. Selah. And let them in truth and sincerity praise thy name, O God of our salvation, and our help. Selah. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD, whose name is good, and to whom it is fitting always to give praise!*

“19. Give peace, beneficence, and benediction, grace, benignity, and mercy unto us, and to Israel thy people. Bless us, our Father, even all of us together as one man, with the light of thy countenance. For in the light of thy countenance hast thou given unto us, O LORD our God, the law of life, and love, and benignity, and righteousness, and blessing, and mercy, and life, and peace. And let it seen good in thine eyes, to bless thy people Israel with thy peace at all times, and in every moment. — *Blessed art thou, O LORD, who blessest thy people Israel with peace!* Amen.

¹ i.e. The *Adytum Templi*, which in the Temple of Jerusalem was the holy of holies, into which none ever entered but the high priest once a year, on the great day of expiation. From this place after the Babylonish captivity were wanting the ark, the mercy seat, the Shechinah of the divine presence, and the Urim and Thummim, which causing an imperfection in their worship in respect of what it was formerly, a restoration of them seems to be the subject of this petition.

CHAPTER II. SACRED PERSONS.

SECTION I.

OF THE JEWISH CHURCH AND ITS MEMBERS.

I. *The whole nation accounted holy.*—II. *Members of the Jewish Church ; Hebrews of the Hebrews.*—III. *Proselytes.*—IV. *Jews of the Dispersion.*—V. *Hellenistic Jews.*—VI. *The Libertines.*—VII. *Devout Men.*—VIII. *Circumcision.*—IX. *Proselytes, how introduced into the Jewish Church.*

I. **Jehovah**, in his infinite wisdom and goodness, having been pleased to prefer the posterity of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, before every other nation, and to select them from every other people, for the purposes of imparting to them the revelation of his will, and of preserving the knowledge and worship of the true God ; He is thence said to have chosen them, and they are in many passages of Scripture represented as his chosen and elect people.¹ And because they were by the will of God set apart, and appropriated in a special manner to his honour and obedience, and furnished with extraordinary motives to holiness, God is therefore said to have sanctified them. (Lev. xx. 8. xxi. 8. xxii. 9. 16. 32.) For these reasons they are termed a holy nation, a kingdom of priests, and also saints² ; and their covenant relation to God is urged upon them as a motive to holiness of heart and practice. (Lev. xix. 2. xx. 7, 8. 26. xi. 45. Exod. xxii. 31.) But the Jews of later times, becoming proud of these titles, and of their ecclesiastical privileges, extended their charity only to those of their own faith ; while towards the rest of mankind they cherished a sullen and inveterate hatred, accounting them to be profane persons and sinners.³ This relative or imputed holiness of the Jews as a covenant people, separated and consecrated to the worship of the true god, was perpetual (in other words it was to subsist until the institution of the Gospel dispensation) ; although the Jews were often extremely corrupt in their manners, as the numerous denunciations of the prophets sufficiently indicate. Hence some of the rabbinical writers call the

¹ Compare Deut. iv. 37. vii. 6. x. 15. 1 Kings viii. 22. et seq. 1 Chron. xvi. 13. Psal. cv. 6. xxxiii. 12. cv. 43. cvi. 5. cxxxv. 4. Isa. xli. 8, 9. xliii. 20. xlv. 1, 2. xlv. 4. and Ezek. xx. 5.

² Compare Exod. xix. 6. Lev. xi. 44, 45. xix. 2. xx. 26. Deut. vi. 6. xiv. 2. 21. xxvi. 19. xxviii. 9. xxxiii. 3. 2 Chron. vi. 41. Psal. xxxiv. 9. l. 5. 7. lxxxix. 2. cxxxix. 9. cxlviii. 14.

³ Apud ipsos fides obstinata, misericordia in promptu, sed adversus omnes alios hostile odium. Such is the character of the Jews given by the Roman historian, as they were in the time of our Saviour (Tacit. Hist. lib. v. c. 5. tom. iii. p. 267. edit. Bipont.) ; which is abundantly confirmed by the sacred writers. See Matt. ix. 10, 11. xxvi. 45. Gal. ii. 15. 17. 1 Thess. ii. 15, 16.

most wicked kings of Israel and Judah holy,—holy, or righteous, and Israelite, being with them convertible terms, (compare Wisd. x. 15. 17. 20. xviii. 1. 7. 9. 20.); and in the time of our Lord the Jews held the preposterous notion, that though they should continue in their sins, yet, because they were the offspring of Abraham, God would not impute their sins to them.¹

The apostles being Jews by birth, though they wrote in Greek, have retained their national idiom, and have borrowed the Old Testament phraseology, which they have applied to Christians, in order to convey to them accurate ideas of the magnitude of God's love to them in Christ. Thus the apostles not only call them disciples and brethren, that is, friends united in the same profession of faith by bonds equally close as those of brothers, *having one Lord, one faith, one baptism*, but, because all true Christians are by the will of God set apart and appropriated in an especial manner to his honour, service, and obedience, and are furnished with extraordinary helps and motives to holiness, they are therefore said to be *sanctified* (1 Cor. i. 2. vi. 11. Heb. ii. 11. x. 29. Jude 1.); and are further styled *holy, holy brethren, a holy nation and saints*.²

II. The first members of this church were the immediate descendants of Abraham by Isaac and Jacob, whom God, having delivered from their oppressive bondage in Egypt, chose for himself to be his peculiar people, and their direct issue, without any intermixture of Gentile blood or language. These are termed by St. Paul *Hebrews of the Hebrews* (Phil. iii. 5.), as opposed to the *Hellenistic Jews*, or those who lived among the Greeks, whose language they spoke, and who were called *Hellenists*. (Acts vi. 1. ix. 29. xi. 20.) Many of the latter were descended from parents, one of whom only was a Jew. Of this description was Timothy, (Acts xvi. 1.) Those who were born in Judæa, of parents rightly descended from Abraham, and who received their education in Judæa, spoke the language of their forefathers, and were thoroughly instructed in the learning and literature of the Jews, were reckoned more honourable than the Hellenists³; and, to mark the excellence of their lineage and language, they were called *Hebrews*;—a name

¹ See Whitty on Matt. iii. 9.

² See Col. iii. 12. 1 Thess. v. 27. Heb. iii. 1. 1 Pet. ii. 9. Acts ix. 32. 41. xxvi. 10. Rom. i. 7. xii. 13. xv. 25, 26. xvi. 15. 1 Cor. i. 2. 2 Cor. i. 1. xiii. 13. Phil. iv. 22. Eph. i. 1. Phil. i. 1. and Col. i. 2.

³ It has been remarked that Greek words ending in *ιστης* imply inferiority. Thus the *Ἑλληνες* (*Hellenes*) were distinguished from the *Ἑλληνισταί* (*Hellenistæ*); the former imply pure or native Greeks, who spoke the Greek tongue in its purity; and the latter, Jews or others sojourning among the Greeks, who spoke the Greek language according to the Hebrew idiom. These were the *Ἑλληνισταί*, Hellenists or Grecians who murmured against the Hebrews. (Acts vi. 1.) "Pythagoras divided his disciples into two classes. Those, who were capable of entering into the spirit and mystery of his doctrine, he called *Πυθαγορείοι*, *Pythagoreans*; those, who were of a different cast, he termed *Πυθαγορίσται*, or *Pythagorists*. The former were eminent and worthy of their master; the latter, but indifferent. The same distinction is made between those who were called *Ἀττικοί* or *Attics*, and *Ἀττικιστæ* or *Atticists*,—the pure and less pure Greeks, as between those called *Ἑλληνας* and *Ἑλληνιστæ*, *Hellenes* and *Hellenists*, pure Greeks, and Græcising Jews." Iamblichus de vita Pythag. c. 14. and Schoettgen, cited by Dr. A. Clarke on Acts vi. 1.

the most antient, and therefore the most honourable, of all the names borne by Abraham's descendants; for it was the name given to Abraham himself, by the Canaanites, to signify that he had come from the other side of the Euphrates. A *Hebrew*, therefore, possessing the character and qualifications above described, was more honourable than an *Israelite*; as that name indicated only that a person was a member of the commonwealth of Israel, which a Jew might be, though born and educated in a foreign country. Saint Paul, indeed, was born at Tarsus, in Cilicia; yet being a Hebrew of the Hebrews, who received his education at Jérusalem, spoke the language used there, and understood the Hebrew in which the antient oracles of God were written, he was a Jew of the most honourable class; and, therefore, when cautioning the Philippians against Judaising teachers and unbelieving Jews, he enumerates this privilege among those of which (if salvation were to be obtained by them,) he *might have confidence in the flesh*. (Phil. iii. 4, 5.) The privileges of the Israelites, which were very highly esteemed by all Jews, are enumerated by St. Paul in his Epistle to the Romans, in a very animated manner.¹

III. Although the constitution of the Jewish polity and the laws of Moses allowed no other nations to participate in their sacred rites, yet they did not exclude from them such persons as were willing to qualify themselves for conforming to them. Hence they admitted proselytes, who renounced the worship of idols, and joined in the religious services of the Jews; although they were not held in the same estimation as Jews by birth, descent, and language, who, we have just seen, were termed Hebrews of the Hebrews. During the time of Jesus Christ, the Jews, especially the Pharisees, greatly exerted themselves in making proselytes to their religion and sect.²

Calmet, and some other learned men after him, have distinguished two kinds of proselytes, namely, 1. *Proselytes of the gate*, who dwelt either in or out of the land of Israel, and worshipped the true God, observing the seven precepts of Noah³, but without obliging themselves to circumcision or any other legal ceremony; and, 2. *Proselytes of justice or of righteousness*, who were converts to Judaism, and engaged themselves to receive circumcision, as well as

¹ See Drs. Whitby, Doddridge, Macknight, A. Clarke, or Messrs. Scott, Henry, &c. on Rom. ix. 4. and Phil. iii. 5.

² Compare Acts vi. 5. xiii. 43. and Matt. xxiii. 15. with Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xiii. c. ix. § 1. and lib. xx. c. iii. § 4.

³ These precepts are by the Jewish Doctors termed the seven precepts of Noah; and (they pretend) were given by God to the sons of Noah. They are as follows:—1. That man should abstain from idolatry;—2. That they should worship the true God alone;—3. That they should hold incest in abhorrence;—4. That they should not commit murder;—5. Nor rob or steal;—6. That they should punish a murderer with death;—7. That they should not eat blood, nor any thing in which blood is, consequently, nothing strangled. “Every one,” says a living Jewish writer, “that observes these seven commandments, is entitled to happiness. But to observe them merely from a sense of their propriety, is deemed by Maimonides insufficient to constitute a pious Gentile, or to confer a title to happiness in the world to come; it is requisite that they be observed, because they are divine commands.” See Allen's *Modern Judaism*, p. 107. Schulzii *Archæol. Hebr.* pp. 148, 149.

to observe the whole of the Mosaic law. There does not however appear to be any foundation in the Scriptures¹ for such a distinction: nor can any with propriety be termed proselytes, except those who *fully* embraced the Jewish religion. The Scriptures mention only two classes of persons, viz. the Israelites or Hebrews of the Hebrews above mentioned, and the Gentile converts to Judaism, which last are called by the names of strangers and sojourners, or proselytes.¹

IV. In consequence of the Babylonish captivity, the Jews were dispersed among the various provinces of the great Babylonian empire; and though a large portion of them returned under Zerubbabel, it appears that a considerable part remained behind. From this circumstance, as well as from various other causes, it happened, in the time of our Lord, that great numbers of Jews were to be found in Greece, and all the other parts of the Roman empire, which at that time had no other limits but those of the then known world.² It was of the Jews *dispersed among the Gentiles or Greeks*, that mention is made in John vii. 35.: and to them Jesus Christ is also supposed to have alluded when he said that he had other sheep (John x. 16.), but without excluding the Gentiles, who also were to enter into his sheepfold, or be admitted into his church. To these dispersed Jews it was, that Peter and James inscribed their respective epistles; the former to those who were scattered through Pontus, Galatia, Cappadocia, Asia Minor, and Bithynia (1 Pet. i. 1.); and the latter to the twelve tribes who were dispersed throughout the then known world. (James i. 1.) The Jews who were assembled at Jerusalem on the day of Pentecost, were of the dispersion. (Acts ii. 5—11.)

V. There were also Jews who lived in those countries where Greek was the living language, and perhaps spoke no other. These are distinguished in the New Testament from the Hebrews or *native* Jews, who spoke what was then called Hebrew (a kind of Chaldaico-Syriac), by the appellation of Hellenists, or Grecians as they are termed in our authorized English version. These in all other respects were members of the Jewish church; they are repeatedly mentioned in the Acts of the Apostles, and it was a party of the Hellenistic Jews that requested to see Jesus.³

¹ These two classes are very frequently mentioned in the books of Moses; thus in Levit. xxv. we have "the children of Israel" (ver. 2.) and "the strangers that sojourn" among them. (ver. 45.) See also Ezek. xiv. 7.—"Every one of the house of Israel, or of the stranger that sojourneth in Israel, that separateth himself from me, and setteth up idols in his heart."—It is evident that, by the "stranger," in this passage is meant a proselyte who had been converted to the worship of Jehovah, otherwise he could not have been separated from him. Schulzii Archæol. Hebr. *ut supra*. Jennings's Jewish Antiquities, book i. ch. iiii. pp. 63—80. Dr. Lardner has remarked that the notion of two sorts of proselytes is not to be found in any Christian writer before the *fourteenth* century; see his arguments at large, Works, vol. vi. pp. 522—533. 8vo. or vol. iiii. pp. 397—400. 4to. and vol. xi. pp. 313—324. 8vo. or vol. v. pp. 485—493. 4to. This observation renders it probable that the twelfth prayer of the Jews in p. 251. *supra*, is not of so early a date as is commonly supposed.

² Philo de Legatione ad Caium p. 1031. et in Flaccum; p. 571. Josephus. Ant. Jud. vi. c. 6. lib. xii. c. 2. lib. xiv. c. 10. Cicero Orat. pro. Flacco, c. 28. xxi. 20. See also Act. vi. 1. ix. 29. and xi. 20. and the commentators on

VI. During the time of our Saviour there was a considerable number of Jews resident at Rome : Josephus estimates them at eight thousand ; and Philo, who relates that they occupied a large quarter of the city, says, that they were chiefly such as had been taken captive at different times, and had been carried into Italy, where they had subsequently acquired their freedom, and were called *Libertines*. The synagogue of the Libertines, mentioned in Acts vi. 9. is, by some critics, supposed to have belonged to this class of Jews.¹

VII. In consequence of this dispersion of the Jews, throughout the Roman empire, and the extensive commerce which they carried on with other nations, their religion became known, and the result was the prevalence of a somewhat purer knowledge of the true God among the Gentiles. Hence we find, that there were many who, though they did not adopt the rite of circumcision, yet had acquired a better knowledge of the Most High than the Pagan theology furnished, and who in some respects conformed to the Jewish religion. Of this description appear to be the "*devout men who feared God,*" who are frequently mentioned in the New Testament², and particularly the pious centurion Cornelius, of whom the sacred writer has given us so pleasing an account. (Acts x.)

VIII. All these persons, with the exception of the last class, were members of the Jewish church, participated in its worship, and regulated themselves by the law of Moses (or at least professed to do so), and by the other inspired Hebrew books, whence their sacred rites and religious instruction were derived. No person however was allowed to partake of the sacred ordinances, until he had undergone the rite of circumcision. This rite is first mentioned in Gen. xvii. 10—12., where we read that it was a seal of the covenant which God made with Abraham and his posterity. Afterwards, when God delivered his law to the children of Israel, he renewed the ordinance of circumcision, which from that time became a sacrament of the Jewish religion. Hence the protomartyr Stephen calls it the "covenant of circumcision" (Acts vii. 8.); and Jesus Christ also ascribes its institution to Moses, though it was derived from the patriarchs. (John vii. 22.) Besides the design which God proposed to himself in establishing this ceremony, he appointed it for some other ends, suited to the circumstances of the Israelites ; a brief consideration of which will illustrate many important passages of Scripture. In the first place, it included in it so solemn and indispensable an obligation to observe the whole law, that circumcision did not profit those who transgressed. (Rom. ii. 25.) Hence the Jews are in the Scriptures frequently termed the *circumcision*, that is, persons circumcised, as opposed to the

¹ Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xvii. c. 11. (al. 13.) lib. xviii. c. 3. (al. 4.) § 4, 5. Philo, de Legat. ad Caium, p. 1014. Tacitus, Annal. lib. ii. c. 85. Suetonius in Tiberio, c. 36. Wolfius on Acts vi. 9. has detailed the various opinions of learned men respecting the Libertines. — See pp. 239, 240. *supra*.

² See Acts xiii. 43. 50. xvi. 14. xvii. 4. 17. and xviii. 7.

uncircumcised Gentiles, who are styled the *uncircumcision* (Rom. iii. 1. 30. iv. 12. Gal. ii. 7—9. Eph. ii. 11. Phil. iii. 5.); the abstract being put for the concrete. Thus, our Saviour is called the minister of circumcision; and therefore St. Paul says, that whoever is circumcised, is bound to keep the whole law. (Gal. v. 3.) For the same reason Jesus Christ was circumcised, that he might be made under the law, to fulfil the promise of the Messiah, and redeem those who were under the law. (Gal. iv. 4.) Secondly, as only circumcised persons were deemed to be visible members of the Jewish church, so none but these were permitted to celebrate the great festivals, particularly the passover. On this account it was that Joshua commanded all the Israelites, who having been born in the wilderness remained uncircumcised, to undergo the rite of circumcision, previously to their entering the land of Canaan (Josh. v. 4. 6. 9.); on which occasion God told them that he had removed or rolled away the reproach of Egypt from them; in other words, that they should thenceforth be regarded as his peculiar people, and no longer as the slaves of Egypt. The knowledge of this circumstance beautifully illustrates Eph. ii. 11—13.; where St. Paul, describing the wretched state of the Gentiles before their conversion, represents them as aliens from the commonwealth of Israel, and consequently excluded from all its privileges and blessings. Thirdly, circumcision was an open profession of the worship of the true God, and consequently an abjuration of idolatry; on this account we are told that during the persecution of Antiochus the heathen put to death those Jewish women who had caused their children to be circumcised¹; and such Jews as apostatised to heathenism took away as much as possible every vestige of circumcision. As this rite was an open profession of the Jewish religion, some zealous converts from that faith to Christianity strenuously urged its continuance, especially among those who were of Jewish origin; but this was expressly prohibited by St. Paul. (1 Cor. vii. 18.)

Lastly, circumcision was appointed for mystical and moral reasons: it was, as baptism is with us, an external sign of inward purity and holiness: hence these expressions of “circumcising the foreskin of the heart,” the “circumcision of the heart,” the “circumcision made without hands,” the “uncircumcised in heart,” &c. so often occurring in the Scriptures.²

¹ 1 Macc. i. 63. Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xii. c. 7.

² See Lev. xxvi. 41, 42. Deut. x. 16. xxx. 6. Jer. iv. 4. ix. 25, 26. Rom. ii. 25—29. Col. ii. 11. Acts vii. 51. Circumcision was that rite of the law by which the Israelites were taken into God's covenant; and (in the spirit of it) was the same as baptism among Christians. For as the form of baptism expresses the putting away of sin, circumcision was another form to the same effect. The Scripture speaks of a “circumcision made without hands,” of which that made with hands was no more than an outward sign, which denoted “the putting off the body of the sins of the flesh,” (Col. ii. 11.) and becoming a new creature; which is the sense of our baptism. Of this inward and spiritual grace of circumcision the apostle speaks expressly in another place; “He is not a Jew which is one outwardly, neither is that circumcision which is outward in the flesh; but he is a Jew which is one inwardly, and circumcision is that of the heart, in the spirit, not in the letter.” (Rom. ii. 28.) Some may suppose that this spiritual applica-

The sacrament of circumcision was enjoined to be observed on the eighth day (Gen. xvii. 12.), including the day when the child was born, and that on which it was performed; and so scrupulous were the Jews in obeying the letter of the law, that they never neglected it, even though it happened on the sabbath day. (John vii. 22, 23.) This they termed "driving away the sabbath." If they were obliged to perform circumcision, either sooner or later, it was considered as a misfortune, and the circumcision so administered, though valid, was not deemed equally good with that done on the eighth day: and when this ceremony was deferred, it was never used to drive away the sabbath. It was for this reason that St. Paul accounted it no small privilege to have been circumcised on the eighth day. Accordingly John the Baptist (Luke i. 59.) and Jesus Christ (Luke ii. 21.) were circumcised exactly on that day. There was a peculiar fitness in the circumcision of Jesus Christ: for, as the Jews reckoned it dishonourable to associate with uncircumcised persons (Acts xi. 3.), it was necessary that he should be circumcised in order to qualify him for conversing familiarly with them, and also for discharging the other duties of his ministry. Besides, as the Messiah was to be descended from Abraham, whose posterity were distinguished from the rest of mankind by this rite, he received the seal of circumcision to shew that he was rightly descended from that patriarch: and as every person that was circumcised was "a debtor to the whole law" (Gal. v. 3.), it was further necessary, that Jesus Christ the true Messiah should be circumcised; because, being thus subjected to the law of Moses, he was put in a condition to fulfil all righteousness, and redeem those who were under the law.¹ (Gal. iv. 4, 5.)

At the same time that the child was circumcised, we learn from the Gospel, that it was usual for the father, or some near relation, to give him a name. Thus John the Baptist and Jesus Christ both received their names on that day. (Luke i. 59. ii. 21.) It appears, however, that the Jews had several names during the period comprised in the evangelical history. Thus it was customary with them,

tion of circumcision, as a sacrament, was invented after the preaching of the Gospel, when the veil was taken from the law; but this doctrine was only enforced to those who had it before, and had departed from the sense of their own law; for thus did Moses instruct the Jews, that there is a "foreskin of the heart" which was to be "circumcised" in a moral or spiritual way, before they could be accepted as the servants of God; and again, that the Lord would "circumcise their heart, to love him with all their heart, and with "all their soul" (Deut. x. 16. and xxx. 6.); which was the same as to say, that he would give them what circumcision signified, making them Jews inwardly, and giving them the inward grace with the outward sign; without which the letter of baptism avails no more now than the letter of circumcision did then: and we may say of the one as is said of the other, "He is not a Christian which is one outwardly, and baptism is not the putting away the filth of the flesh by washing with water, but the answer of a good conscience towards God." (1 Pet. iii. 21.) Rev. W. Jones on the Figurative Language of Scripture. (Works, vol. iii. pp. 77, 78.) On this subject Dr. Graves has some excellent remarks, in his Lectures on the Pentateuch, vol. i. pp. 241—250. See also an excellent discourse of Bishop Beveridge, intitled "the New Creature in Christianity." Works, vol. ii. Sermon. xix. pp. 417. et seq. 8vo. edit.

¹ Macknight and Whitby on Luke ii. 21.

when travelling into foreign countries, or familiarly conversing with the Greeks and Romans, to assume a Greek or Latin name of great affinity, and sometimes of the very same signification with that of their own country, by which name they were usually called among the Gentiles. So Thomas was called Didymus (John xi. 16.); the one a Syriac and the other a Greek work, but both signifying *a twin*. (See Acts i. 23. xii. 12. 2 Pet. i. 1. Col. iv. 11., &c.) Sometimes the name was added from their country, as Simon the Canaanite, and Judas Iscariot (Matt. x. 4.); but more frequently from their assuming a new and different name upon particular occurrences in life. (See 2 Chron. xxxvi. 4. 2 Kings xxiv. 17. John i. 42.) The same practice obtains in the East to this day.¹

However necessary circumcision was while the ceremonial law remained in force, it became equally indifferent and unnecessary on the abrogation of that law by the destruction of the temple. Until that time the apostles allowed it to be performed on the Jewish converts to Christianity; but they expressly prohibited the imposition of such a yoke on the necks of the Gentile converts: and therefore St. Paul, who has fully proved how unprofitable and unnecessary it is (1 Cor. vii. 19.), thought it proper to have Timothy circumcised, because his mother was of Jewish extraction (Acts xvi. 1—3.); though he would not, on the other hand, allow this ceremony to be performed on Titus, because he was a Greek (Gal. ii. 3.): — thus giving to the church in all ages a most excellent pattern, either of condescension or resolution, in insisting upon or omitting things indifferent according to the difference of times and circumstances.²

IX. In the initiation of PROSELYTES to the Jewish religion, according to the rabbinical writers, the three following observances were appointed, namely, circumcision, baptism, and the offering of sacrifice; all of which, except circumcision, were performed by the women, as well as by the men, who became proselytes.

1. *Circumcision* was the seal of the covenant into which the proselyte entered with God, and of the solemn profession which he made to observe the entire law of Moses: and if the proselyte were a Samaritan, or of any other nation that used that rite, blood was to be drawn afresh from the part circumcised.

2. The second ceremony was *Washing* or *Baptism*; which must be performed in the presence of at least three Jews of distinction, and in the day time that nothing might be done in secret. At the time of its performance the proselyte declared his abhorrence of his past life, and that no secular motives, but a sincere love for the law of Moses, induced him to be baptised; and he was then instructed in

¹ See Harmer's Observations, vol. iv. pp. 431—433.

² Beausobre and L'Enfant's Introd. to the New Test. (Bishop Watson's Coll. of Tracts, vol. iii. pp. 205, 206.) Schulzii, Archæol. Hebr. pp. 159—166. Ikenii Antiq. pp. 343—347. Stosch. Compend. Archæol. (Economicæ Nov. Test. § 32—36. Edwards on the Authority, &c. of Scripture, vol. ii. pp. 313—330. Mr. Allen has given an interesting account of the mode of circumcision that obtains among the Jews of the present time, in his "Modern Judaism," pp. 223—226.

the most essential parts of the law. He promised, at the same time, to lead a holy life, to worship the true God, and to keep his commandments.

3. The third ceremony to be performed was that of *offering sacrifice*.

And it was a common notion among the Jews, that every person who had duly performed them all was to be considered as a new-born infant. Thus Maimonides expressly says : — “ A Gentile who is become a proselyte, and a servant who is set at liberty, are both as it were new-born babes¹; and all those relations, which he had while either Gentile or servant, now cease from being so.”

SECTION II.

ON THE MINISTERS OF THE TEMPLE AND OTHER ECCLESIASTICAL OR SACRED PERSONS.

I. *Of the Levites*.—II. *The Priests, their functions, maintenance, and privileges*.—III. *The High Priest*.—*Succession to the Pontifical Dignity*.—*His qualifications, functions, dress, and privileges*.—IV. *Officers of the Synagogue*.—V. *The Nazarites ; nature of their vows*.—VI. *The Rechabites*.—VII. *The Prophets*.

THE Jews, on the establishment of their republic, had no king but Jehovah himself; and the place appointed for their sacrifices and prayers was at the same time both the temple of their God and the palace of their sovereign. This circumstance will account for the pomp and splendour of their worship, as well as the number, variety, and gradations in rank of their ministers; which were first established by Moses, and afterwards renewed by David, with increased splendour, for the service of the temple. To this service the tribe of Levi was especially devoted, instead of the first-born of the tribes of Israel, and was disengaged from all secular labours. The honour of the priesthood, however, was reserved to the family of Aaron alone, the rest of the tribe being employed in the inferior offices of

¹ Lightfoot's *Hor. Heb.* on Matt. iii. 6.; Wetstein on John iii. 2.; and Whitby on John iii. 4, 5, 6. Some learned men have supposed that our Lord alluded to this rabbinical tradition when he reproached Nicodemus with being a master in Israel (John iii. 10), and yet being at the same time ignorant how a man could be born a second time. But it is most probable that Jesus Christ referred to that spiritual meaning of circumcision above noticed (see p. 258. and note ² *supra*). The arguments on the much disputed question, 'Whether baptism was in use, or not, before the time of our Saviour, are reviewed by Carpzov in his *Apparatus Antiquitatum Sacrarum*, p. 49. and by Dr. Jennings in his *Jewish Antiquities*, book i. c. 3. pp. 65—68. It may not be irrelevant to remark that the learned Dr. Campbell refers our Lord's censure of Nicodemus, not to the rabbinical notion above mentioned, but rather to his entire ignorance of that effusion of the Spirit which would take place under the Messiah, and which had been so clearly foretold by the prophets. Translation of the Four Gospels, vol. ii. p. 515. 3d edit.

the temple: so that all the priests were Levites, but all the Levites were not priests.

I. Originally, the tribe of Levi was divided into the three families and orders of Gershonites, Kohathites, and Merarites (1 Chron. vi. 16., &c.), but afterwards the LEVITES were divided by David (1 Chron. xxiii.) into four classes. Their principal office was to wait upon the priests, and be assisting to them in the service of the tabernacle and temple; so that they were properly the ministers and servants of the priests, and obliged to obey their orders. (Numb. iii. 9. 1 Chron. xxiii. 28.) But the particular duties incumbent upon them were different in the time of Moses, while the Israelites were in the wilderness, from those which they had to discharge afterwards, in the days of David and Solomon. In the wilderness the tabernacle was always in a moveable condition as well as the Israelites: and at that time the chief business of the Levites was, when the Israelites journeyed, to take down the tabernacle, to carry it about as the host removed, to take care of all the instruments and sacred vessels belonging to it, and when the army pitched their tents to set them up again. Aaron, indeed, together with his sons the priests, were to take the ark of the covenant, the table of shew-bread, the candlestick, the altar of incense, and the altar of burnt-offerings, with all the utensils belonging thereto, and to cover them up severally with decency and care, in the manner described in Numb. iv. 5—15. But all these things were to be borne and carried by the Levites, in the doing of which the priests were to appoint every one of the Levites to his service and his burden. (ver. 19.) In order that we may the better understand this precept, it should be observed, that the Israelitish camp was never to move until the cloud, (which was the token of the divine presence) was taken up and removed from off the tabernacle (Exod. xl. 36, 37. Numb. x. 11.); so that when the cloud rested upon the tabernacle and the glory of the Lord filled the house, none but Aaron might enter into the most holy place, where the ark was, and that but one day in the year. But in their journeyings the glory of the Lord, which made that place so holy, being for the present removed in the cloud, when it was taken up from the tabernacle, not only Aaron, but also his sons the priests, might go into the most holy place without any irreverence, and cover the ark according to the directions given by God.

For the more regular performance of the several duties belonging to the tabernacle, the whole business was divided between the Kohathites, the Gershonites, and the Merarites. The first were principally concerned in carrying the ark and sacred vessels belonging to the tabernacle under the conduct of Eleazar the priest (Numb. iv. 16.), which being the most honourable employment, was given to them, most probably out of respect to Moses, who was descended from this family. The Gershonites and Merarites, under the direction of Ithamar, had the burden and charge of every thing else belonging to the tabernacle, as the coverings, hangings, woodwork, cords, pins, &c. (ver. 24—34.) Now when the Israelites were en-

camped, these three families of Levites were to pitch their tents round three sides of the tabernacle, and Moses and Aaron with their sons round the fourth quarter; by which means they were so disposed, as to be each of them as near as conveniently they could to their respective charges. Such was the office of the Levites in the time of Moses. Afterwards, when the Israelites were settled in the promised land, this employment of the Levites in carrying the tabernacle and its utensils ceased; and therefore David and Solomon appointed them to new offices. They were chiefly indeed employed about the service of the temple, but during their recess, while they were not in attendance there, they were dispersed through the whole country, and employed in the service of the state as well as of the church. David made six thousand of them officers and judges (1 Chron. xxiii. 4); they also took care to instruct the people where they resided in the Mosaic law, by expounding the several parts of it; and, according to the Jews, they kept the public records and genealogies of the several tribes.

In the business about the temple some of the chief amongst them had the charge of the treasures of the temple. (1 Chron. xxvi. 20.) Others of a lower rank were to prepare the shew-bread and unleavened cakes, with the proper quantity of flour for the morning and evening service. (1 Chron. xxiii. 29.) From which text it appears also that they had in their custody within the sanctuary the original standard for weights and measures, liquid and dry, according to which every thing of this kind was to be regulated. Hence it is we often read in Scripture of the shekel of the sanctuary, not that there were two sorts of shekels, one sacred and another civil, but because weights and measures, being reckoned among the sacred things, were kept in the sanctuary, as they were in the temples of the Pagans, and afterwards in Christian churches.¹ Many of the Levites were likewise employed as porters, to guard the gates and passages into the temple. (1 Chron. ix. 17.) Others were more honourably employed as singers in the temple, and were to stand every morning to thank and praise the Lord, and likewise in the evening. (1 Chron. xxiii. 30.): and this we find they did in a very solemn manner at the dedication of the temple. (2 Chron. v. 12, 13.) The whole body of the Levites in David's time amounted to thirty-eight thousand, from thirty years old and upwards (1 Chron. xxii. 3.), of which number he appointed four and twenty thousand to attend the constant duty and work of the temple; and these being divided as the priests were into four and twenty courses (as appears from 1 Chron. xxiii. 24. and 2 Chron. xxxi. 17.), there were one thousand for each week. Six thousand again were to be officers and judges, as already mentioned, four thousand for porters, and four thousand for singers. (1 Chron. xxiii. 4, 5.) The four and twenty courses of singers are mentioned in 1 Chron. xxv. 8—31. This disposition of them was afterwards confirmed by Solomon when the temple was

¹ Novels of Justinian, nov. 128. cap. 15.

finished (2 Chron. viii. 14.): and all these had their chiefs or overseers as well as the priests. (Ezra viii. 29.) The duty of the porters was not only to be a military guard upon the temple, but to take care that no person who was unclean or uncircumcised might enter the court of the Israelites. (2 Chron. xxiii. 19.) And however mean their employment was, yet it was the pious desire of David, *rather to be a doorkeeper in the house of God, than to dwell in the tents of wickedness.* (Psal. lxxxiv. 10.) The order of singers was instituted by David, and it appears that the whole book of psalms was composed for this kind of devotion. David (by whom the greatest number was composed) directed many of them to the chief musician, for this very purpose, that they might be used in the service of the house of God. And we have one particular instance in which it is said, that *David delivered this psalm to thank the Lord into the hand of Asaph and his brethren.* (1 Chron. xvi. 7.) The principal persons of this order who had the superintendency over all the rest, were Heman and Asaph of the line of Gershon, and Jeduthun of the line of Merari, of whom we have an account in 1 Chron. xxv.

In the service of the tabernacle Moses did not appoint the use of any musical instruments: he only caused some trumpets to be made which upon solemn occasions were to be sounded, at the time when the burnt-offerings and peace-offerings were upon the altar. (Numb. x. 10.) But David, by the advice of the prophets Gad and Nathan, introduced several kinds of music into the service of the temple, as a thing highly conducive to inspire the people with respect, with joy, and with affection for the solemnities and assemblies of religion. (2 Chron. xxix. 25. 1 Chron. xxiii. 5. and xxv. 1.) These instruments were confided to the care of the Levites; some of whom played on instruments, while others sang psalms, but all were divided into companies, over whom a president was placed. (1 Chron. xxv.)

The mere circumstance of birth did not give the Levites a title to officiate; they were obliged also to receive a sort of consecration, which consisted chiefly in sprinkling them with water, in washing, and in offering sacrifices. (Numb. viii. 6, 7, 8.) The usual age, at which the Levites were to enter on their office, was at five and twenty years, and so to continue till fifty. (Numb. viii. 24, 25.) But there was a particular precept which restrained the Kohathites (one of the three branches) from being employed to carry the holy things belonging to the sanctuary, till they were of the age of thirty (Numb. iv. 30.), probably, because these being the most valuable and important of all the moveables belonging to the tabernacle, required therefore persons of greater experience and strength. Afterwards, when David new-moulded the constitution of the Levites, he (by the same authority which empowered him to give directions about the building and situation of the house of God), ordered that for the future the Levites should be admitted at the age of twenty years. (1 Chron. xxiii. 24.) It does not appear by the first institution of the Levites that they had any peculiar habit in the ceremonies of

religion by which they were distinguished from other Israelites. None of the Levites, of what degree or order soever, had any right to sacrifice, for that was the proper duty of the priests only: the Levites indeed were to assist the priests in killing and flaying the sacrifices, and, during the time they were offered up, to sing praises to God: and in this sense the two passages in 1 Chron. xxiii. 31. and 2 Chron. xxxi. 2. are commonly understood; neither had they any title to burn incense to the Lord; and though the speech of Hezekiah (mentioned in 2 Chron. xxix. particularly ver. 11.) seems to imply otherwise, yet we ought to consider that he is there speaking to the priests as well as to the Levites. It was upon account of their aspiring to the priest's office in this particular of burning incense, that Korah and his company (who were Levites) were miraculously destroyed, and their censers ordered to be beaten into broad plates, and fixed upon the altar, to be perpetual monuments of their presumptuous sacrilege, and a caution to all the children of Israel, that none presume to offer incense before the Lord, but the seed of Aaron, who alone were commissioned to the priestly office.

As the Levites were subordinate to the priests, so they the Levites had others under them, called *Nethinims*, whose business it was to carry the water and wood, that was wanted in the temple for the use of the sacrifices, and to perform other laborious services there. They were not originally of Hebrew descent, but are supposed to have been chiefly the posterity of the Gibeonites, who for their fraudulent stratagem in imposing upon Joshua and the Hebrew princes (Josh. ix. 3—27.) were condemned to this employment, which was a sort of honourable servitude. We read in Ezra, that the Nethinims were devoted by David and the other princes to the service of the temple (Ezra viii. 20.), and they are called the children of Solomon's servants (Ezra ii. 58.), being probably a mixture of the race of the Gibeonites, and some of the remains of the Canaanites, whom Solomon constrained to various servitudes. (1 Kings ix. 20, 21.) They had a particular place in Jerusalem where they dwelt, called Ophel, for the conveniency of being near the service of the temple. (Neh. iii. 26.)

In order to enable the Levites to devote themselves to that service, forty-eight cities were assigned to them for their residence, on the division of the land of Canaan; thirteen of these were appropriated to the priests¹, to which were added the tithes of corn, fruit, and cattle. The Levites, however, paid to the priests a tenth part of all their tithes; and as they were possessed of no landed property, the tithes which the priests received from them were considered as the first fruits which they were to offer to God. (Numb. xviii. 21—24.)

II. Next to the Levites, but superior to them in dignity, were the ordinary PRIESTS, who were chosen from the family of Aaron exclusively. They served immediately at the altar, prepared the

¹ See p. 10. *supra*.

victims, and offered the sacrifices. They kept up a perpetual fire on the altar of the burnt sacrifices, and also in the lamps of the golden candlestick in the sanctuary; they kneaded the loaves of shew-bread, which they baked, and offered on the golden altar in the sanctuary; and changed them every sabbath day. Every day, morning and evening, a priest (who was appointed at the beginning of the week by lot) brought into the sanctuary a smoking censer of incense, which he set upon the golden table and which on no account was to be kindled with strange fire, that is, with any fire but that which was taken from the altar of burnt sacrifice. (Lev. x. 1, 2.) And as the number and variety of their functions required them to be well read in their law, in order that they might be able to judge of the various *legal* uncleannesses, &c. this circumstance caused them to be consulted as interpreters of the law (Hos. iv. 6. Mal. ii. 7., &c. Lev. xiii. 2. Numb. v. 14, 15.), as well as judges of controversies. (Deut. xxi. 5. xvii. 8—13.) In the time of war, their business was to carry the ark of the covenant, to sound the holy trumpets, and animate the army to the performance of its duties. To them also it belonged publicly to bless the people in the name of the Lord.

The priests were divided by David into twenty-four classes (1 Chron. xxv.); which order was retained by Solomon (2 Chron. viii. 14.); and at the revivals of the Jewish religion by the kings Hezekiah and Josiah. (2 Chron. xxxi. 2. xxxv. 4, 5.) As, however, only four classes returned from the Babylonish captivity (Ezra ii. 36—39. Neh. vii. 39—42. xii. 1.), these were again divided into twenty-four classes, each of which was distinguished by its original appellation. This accounts for the introduction of the class or order of Abiah, mentioned in Luke i. 5., which we do not find noticed among those who returned from the captivity. One of these classes went up to Jerusalem every week to discharge the sacerdotal office, and succeeded one another on the sabbath day, till they had all attended in their turn. To each order was assigned a president (1 Chron. xxiv. 6. 31. 2 Chron. xxxvi. 14.), whom some critics suppose to be the same as the *chief priests* so often mentioned in the New Testament, and in the writings of Josephus.¹ The prince or prefect of each class appointed an entire family to offer the daily sacrifices; and at the close of the week they all joined together in sacrificing. And as each family consisted of a great number of priests, they drew lots for the different offices which they were to perform. It was by virtue of such lot that the office of burning incense was assigned to Zacharias the father of John the Baptist, *when he went into the temple of the Lord.* (Luke i. 9.)

The sacerdotal dignity being confined to certain families, every one who aspired to it was required to establish his descent from those families: on this account the genealogies of the priests were

¹ See Matt. xxvii. i. Acts iv. 23. v. 27. ix. 14. 21. xxii. 30. xxiii. 14. xxv. 15. xxvi. 10.; and also Josephus, *Art. Jud.* lib. x. c. 8. § 8. De Bell. *Jud.* lib. iv. c. 3. § 7. c. 4. § 3. *de vita sua*, § 2. 5.

inscribed in the public registers, and were preserved in the archives of the temple.¹ Hence, in order to preserve the purity of the sacerdotal blood, no priest was permitted to marry a harlot or profane woman, or one who had been divorced: and if any one laboured under any bodily defect, this excluded him from serving at the altar. Purity of body and sanctity of life were alike indispensable; nor could any one undertake the priestly office, in the early period of the Jewish polity, before he had attained thirty years, or, in later times, the age of twenty years.² According to Maimonides, the priest, whose genealogy was defective in any respect, was clothed in black, and veiled in black, and sent without the verge of the court of the priests; but every one that was found perfect and right was clothed in white, and went in and ministered with his brethren the priests. It is not improbable that St. John refers to this custom of the Jewish sanhedrin in Rev. iii. 5. Those priests, whose birth was pure, lived in certain apartments of the temple, in which was deposited wood for the altar, and were employed in splitting and preparing it, to keep up the sacred fire.³ No particular ceremony appears to have taken place at the consecration of the ordinary priests, who were admitted to the exercise of their functions by "*filling their hands*," as the Scriptures term it,—that is by making them perform the offices of their order. But when the priests had departed from their religion, or had been a long time without discharging their functions, (which happened under some of the later kings of Judah,) it was deemed necessary to sanctify anew such priests, as well as those who had never exercised their ministry. (2 Chron. xxix. 34.)

The priests were not distinguished by their sacerdotal habits, unless when engaged in the service of the altar. Of these garments there are four kinds mentioned in the books of Exodus (xxviii.) and Leviticus (viii.) viz. 1. Linen drawers; 2. A linen tunic, which reached down to the ancles, fitting closely to the body, and the sleeves of which were tightly drawn round the arms: it was without seam, and woven from the top throughout. Such was the tunic worn by Jesus Christ, for which the soldiers cast lots⁴; 3. A girdle; and, 4. A tiara, which was originally a pointed kind of bonnet or turban, made of several rolls of linen cloth twisted round the head, but in the time of Josephus it approached somewhat to a globular form.⁵

In order that the priests, as well as the Levites, might be wholly

¹ Ezra ii. 62. Neh. vii. 64. Josephus contra Apion, lib. i. § 7. et in vita sua, § 1.

² Levit. xxi. 7. 17—23. Numb. c. 3. 2 Chron. xxxi. 17. Maimonides has enumerated not fewer than 140 bodily defects which disqualified persons for the priesthood. See Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. iii. c. 12. § 2. and compare Carpzov's Apparatus Antiquitatum Sacrarum, p. 89. et seq.

³ Lamy, Apparatus Biblicus, vol. i. p. 213.

⁴ Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. i. c. 7. § 2. See also the Observations of Ernesti, Inst. Interp. Nov. Test. part ii. c. 10. § 38. pp. 371—373. It was for a long time supposed that the art of making such vests was irrecoverably lost. Braunius however rediscovered it, and procured a loom to be made, in which tunics were woven all of one piece. See his treatise de Vestitu Sacerdotum Hebræorum, lib. i. c. 16. p. 264.

⁵ Josephus, Antiq. Jud. lib. iii. c. 7. § 3.

at liberty to follow their sacred profession, they were exempted from all secular burthens or labours. Of the Levitical cities already mentioned, thirteen were assigned for the residence of the priests, with their respective suburbs (Numb. xxxv.): the limits of which were confined to a thousand cubits beyond the walls of the city, which served for out-houses, as stables, barns, and perhaps for gardens of herbs and flowers. Beyond this they had two thousand cubits more for their pasture, called properly the *fields of the suburbs*. (Levit. xxv. 34.) So that there were in the whole three thousand cubits round the city; and in this sense we are to understand Numb. xxxv. 4, 5. where the word suburbs comprehends both the houses, without the walls, and also the fields. But though the tribe of Levi had no portion in Canaan assigned them in the first division of it, yet they were not prevented from purchasing land, houses, goods or cattle, out of their own proper effects. Thus we read that Abiathar had an estate of his own at Anathoth, to which Solomon banished and confined him (1 Kings ii. 26.); and the prophet Jeremiah, who was also a priest purchased a field of his uncle's son in his own town. (Jer. xxxii. 8, 9.) Such were the residences allotted to the priests. Their maintenance was derived from the tithes offered by the Levites out of the tithes by them received, from the first fruits, from the first clip of wool when the sheep were shorn, from the offerings made in the temple, and from their share of the sin-offerings and thanksgiving-offerings sacrificed in the temple, of which certain parts were appropriated to the priests. Thus in the peace-offerings, they had the shoulder and the breast (Lev. vii. 33, 34.): in the sin-offerings, they burnt on the altar the fat that covered certain parts of the sacrificed; the rest belonged to the priest. (Lev. vii. 6. 10.) To him also was appropriated the skin or fleece of every victim; and when an Israelite killed an animal for his own use, there were certain parts, assigned to the priest. (Deut. xviii. 3.) All the first-born also, whether of man or beast, were dedicated to God, and by virtue of that devotion belonged to the priests. The men were redeemed for five shekels (Numb. xviii. 15, 16.): the first-born of impure animals were redeemed or exchanged, but the clean animals were not redeemed. They were sacrificed to the Lord; their blood was sprinkled about the altar, and the rest belonged to the priest; who also had the first-fruits of trees, that is, those of the fourth year (Numb. xviii. 13. Lev. xix. 23, 24.), as well as a share in the tithes of the spoils taken in war. (Numb. xxxi. 28—41.) Such were the principal revenues of the priests, which, though they were sufficient to keep them above want, yet were not (as some writers have imagined) so ample as to enable them to accumulate riches, or to impoverish the laity; thus their political influence, arising from their sacred station, as well as from their superior learning and information, was checked by rendering them dependent on the people for their daily bread. By this wise constitution of Moses, they were deprived of all power, by which might injure the liberty of the other tribes, or in any way en-

danger the Israelitish polity, by any ambitious views or prospects: for not only were all the estates of the Levites and priests, but also their persons, given into the hands of the other tribes, as so many hostages, and as a security for their good behaviour. They were so separated from one another, that they could not assist each other in any ambitious design; and they were so dispersed among the other tribes, that these could attach the whole subsistence as well as arrest all the persons of the Levites and priests at once, in the event of any national quarrel, or if they were suspected of forming any evil designs against the other tribes of Israel. Hence we may perceive, that, whatever power or influence the Mosaic constitution gave the Levites to do good, the same constitution carefully provided, that they should have no power, either to disturb the peace, or to endanger the liberties of their country.¹

III. Over all the priests was placed the HIGH PRIEST, who enjoyed peculiar dignities and influence. He alone could enter the Holy of Holies in the temple: the supreme administration of sacred things was confined to him; he was the final arbiter of all controversies; in later times he presided over the sanhedrin, and held the next rank to the sovereign or prince. His authority, therefore, was very great at all times, especially when he united the pontifical and regal dignities in his own person. In the Old Testament he is sometimes called *the priest* by way of eminence (Exod. xxix. 30. Neh. vii. 65.), and sometimes the head or chief of the high priests because the appellation of high priests was given to the heads of the sacerdotal families or courses.

The pontifical dignity, in its first institution, was held for life, provided the high priests were not guilty of crimes that merited deposition. For we read that Solomon deprived Abiathar of this office for being concerned in treasonable practices with Adonijah, who aspired to the throne of Israel. (1 Kings ii. 27.) At its first institution, also, the high priesthood was made hereditary in the family of Aaron (Numb. iii. 10.), who was the first person invested with this dignity. (Lev. viii. 1. *et seq.* Heb. v. 4, 5.) From Aaron it descended to Eleazar, his eldest son, from whom it passed in long succession to Eli; from him on account of the wickedness of his sons, the dignity subsequently devolved to the descendants of Ithamar the second son of Aaron. (1 Sam. ii. 35, 36.) In the reign of Solomon, however, it returned again into the family of Eleazar by Zadok (1 Kings ii. 35.); in which it remained until the Babylonian captivity. During this period the high priest was elected by the other priests, or else by an assembly partly consisting of priests.

The first high priest, after the return from the captivity, was Joshua the son of Josedek, of the family of Eleazar; whence the succession went into a private Levitical family. The office was then filled by some of the princes of the Maccabean family. Ac-

¹ Lowman's Civil Government of the Hebrews, p. 124.

cording to the law, it was or ought to have been held for life; but this was very ill obeyed under the Roman government, especially during the time of our Saviour, and in the latter years of the Jewish polity, when election and the right of succession were totally disregarded. The dignity, sanctity, and authority of the high priest were then almost annihilated; and this office was not unfrequently sold to the highest bidder, to persons who had neither age, learning, nor rank to recommend them; nay, even to individuals who were not of the sacerdotal race; and sometimes the office was made annual.¹ This circumstance will account for the variations in the lists of the succession to the high priesthood contained in the Scriptures, in Josephus, and in the Talmudical writers²; and will also explain the circumstance of several high priests being in existence at the same time, or rather of there being several pontifical men who, having once held the office for a short time, seem to have retained the original dignity attached to the name.³

The following TABLE exhibits a CHRONOLOGICAL SERIES OF THE HIGH PRIESTS OF THE HEBREWS, from the Commencement to the Subversion of their State and Government.

1. Succession, taken from several places of the Holy Scriptures.	2. Succession, taken from 1 Chron. vi. 3—15.	3. Succession, taken from Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. x. c. 8. lib. xx. c. 10.	4. Succession, taken from the Jewish Chronicle, intitled Seder Olam.
1. Aaron, the brother of Moses, created high-priest, A.M. 2514, died 2552.	1. Aaron.	1. Aaron.	1. Aaron.
2. Eleazar, created in 2552, and died about 2571.	2. Eleazar.	2. Eleazar.	2. Eleazar.
3. Phinchas, A.M. 2571, died 2590.	3. Phinchas.	3. Phinchas.	3. Phinchas.
4. Abiezer, or Abishua. } These were under the judges.	4. Abishua.	4. Abiezer.	4. Eli.
5. Bukki. }	5. Bukki.	5. Bukki.	5. Ahitub.
6. Uzzi }	6. Uzzi.	6. Uzzi.	6. Abiathar.
7. Eli, of the race of Ithamar, created in 2848, died in 2888.	7. Zerariah.	7. Eli.	7. Zadok.
8. Ahitub I.	8. Meraioth.	8. Ahitub.	8. Ahimah, under Rehoboam.
9. Ahiah. He lived in 2911, or 2912.	9. Amariah.	9. Ahimelech	9. Azariah, under Abiah.
10. Ahimelech, or Abiah, he was murdered by Saul, 2944.	10. Ahitub I.	10. Abiathar.	10. Jehoachash, under Jehoshaphat.

¹ Josephus de Bell. Jud. lib. iv. c. 5. § 7, 8.

² That this was the case with Annas and Caiaphas, is fully proved by Dr. Lardner, Credibility, book ii. c. 4. § 1. (Works, vol. i. pp. 383—386.) The various successions of the high priests are given at length by R. Land, Antiq. Hebr. part ii. c. 2. pp. 160—168. Utrecht, 1717; and by Calmet, Dict. voce Priest, from whom we have copied the Table in this and the following pages.

³ Antiq. Jud. lib. vi. c. 2. § 2. c. 1. § 3.

1. Succession, taken from several places of the Holy Scriptures.	2. Succession, taken from 1 Chron. vi. 3—15.	3. Succession, taken from Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. x. c. 8. lib. xx. c. 10.	4. Succession, taken from the Jewish Chronicle, intitled Seder Olam.
11. Abiathar, Ahimelech, or Abimelech, under David, from 2944 to 2989.	11. Zadok I.	11. Zadok.	11. Jehoiarib, under Jehoram.
12. Zadok I. under Saul, David, and Solomon, from 2944. to about 5000.	12. Ahimaaz.	12. Ahimaaz.	12. Jehoshaphat, under Ahaziah.
13. Ahimaaz, under Rehobam, about A.M. 3050.	13. Azariah.	13. Azariah.	13. Jehoiadah, } under Joash.
14. Azariah, under Jehoshaphat; perhaps the same as Amariah. (2Chron. xix. 11.)	14. Johanan, 1 Chron. vi. 9, 10.	14. Joram.	14. Phadaiah, }
15. Johanan, perhaps Jehoiadah, in the reign of Joash, 2Chron. xxiv. 15. in 5126. He died at the age of 150.	15. Azariah.	15. Issus.	15. Zedekiah, under Amaziah.
16. Azariah, perhaps the same with Zechariah, son of Jehoiadah, who was killed in 5164.	16. Amariah.	16. Axiora.	16. Joel, under Uzziah.
Amariah, perhaps Azariah, under Uzziah, in 5221.	17. Abitub II.	17. Phideus.	17. Jotham, under Joatham.
18. Abitub II. } Under Jotham,	Zadok II.	18. Sudeas.	18. Uriah, under Ahaz.
19. Zadok II. } king of Judah.	Shallum.	19. Julius.	19. Neriah, under Hezekiah.
20. Uriah, under Ahaz, 5265.	20. Hilkiab.	20. Jotham.	20. Hosaiab, under Manasseh.
21. Shallum, the father of Azariah, and grandfather to Hilkiab.	21. Azariah.	Uriah.	21. Shallum, under Amon.
Azariah, who lived in the time of Hezekiah (2Chron. xxxi. 10.), 5278.	22. Seraiah.	Neriah.	22. Hilkiab, under Josiah.
Hilkiab, under Hezekiah.	23. Jeozadak.	Odeas.	23. Azariah, under Jehoiakim and Zedekiah.
Eliakim, or Joakim, under Manasseh, and at the time of the siege of Bethulia, in 5548. He continued to live under Josiah to 5580. and longer. He is also called Hilkiab. (Baruch. i. 7.)	24. Joshua	24. Saldam.	24. Jehozadak, after the taking of Jerusalem.
Azariah, perhaps Neriah, the father of Seraiah and of Baruch.		25. Hilkiab.	25. Jesus, son of Jehozadak, after the captivity.
26. Seraiah, the last high-priest before the captivity; put to death in 5414.		26. Seraiah.	
27. Jehozadak, during the captivity of Babylon, from 5414 to 5469.		27. Jehozadak.	
28. Joshua, or Jesus, the son of Jehozadak: he returned from Babylon in 5468.		28. Jesus, or Joshua.	

The following succession is collected from Ezra, Nehemiah, and Josephus.

29. Joachim, under the reign of Xerxes, Jos. Ant. l. ii. c. 5.
30. Eliasib, Joasib, or Chasib, under Nehemiah, A.M. 3550.
31. Joiada, or Juda, Neh. xii. 10.
32. Jonathan, or John.
33. Jaddua, or Jaddus, who received Alexander the Great at Jerusalem in 3673, and died in 3682.
34. Onias I. made high-priest in 3681, governed 21 years, and died in 3702.
35. Simon I. called the Just, made high-priest in 3702 or 3703, and died in 3711.
36. Eleazar, made in 3712. Under this Pontiff, the translation of the Septuagint is said to have been made, about the year 3727: he died in 3744.
37. Manasseh, made in 3745, died in 3771.
38. Onias II. made in 3771, died in 3785.
39. Simon II. made in 3785, and died in 3805.
40. Onias III. made in 3805, deposed 3829, died in 3854.
41. Jesus, or Jason, made in 3830, deposed in 3831.
42. Onias IV. otherwise called Menelaus, made in 3832, died in 3842.
43. Lysimachus, vicegerent of Menelaus, killed in 3834.
44. Alcimus, or Jacimus, or Joachim, made in 3842, died 3844.
45. Onias V. He did not exercise his pontificate at Jerusalem, but retired into Egypt, where he built the temple Onion in 3854.
46. Judas Maccabæus, restored the altar and the sacrifices in 3840, died in 3843.
47. Jonathan, the Asmonæan, brother to Judas Maccabæus, created high-priest in 3843, and died in 3860.
48. Simon Maccabæus made in 3860, died in 3869.
49. John Hircannus, made in 3869, died in 3898.
50. Aristobulus, king and pontiff of the Jews, died 3899.
51. Alexander Jannæus, also king and pontiff during 27 years, from 3899 to 3926.
52. Hyrcanus was high-priest for the space of 52 years in the whole, from 3926 to 3958.
53. Aristobulus, brother to Hyrcanus, usurped the high-priesthood, and held it three years and three months, from 3955 to 3940.
54. Antigonus, his son, also usurped the priesthood in prejudice to the rights of Hyrcanus, and possessed it for three years and seven months, from 3964 to 3967, when he was taken by Sosius.
55. Ananeel of Babylon, made high-priest by Herod in 3968 till 3970.
56. Aristobulus, the last of the Asmonæans; he did not enjoy the pontificate a whole year. He died in 3970. Ananeel was made high-priest a second time in 3971.
57. Jesus, the son of Phabiz, deposed in 3981.

Succession of High Priests after the Captivity.

58. Simon, son of Botheus, made high-priest in 3981, deposed in 3999.
59. Matthias, son of Theophilus, made high-priest in 3999. Ellem was substituted in his place for a day, because of an accident that happened to Matthias, which hindered him from performing his office that day.
60. Joazar, son of Simon, son of Boethus, made high-priest in 4000, the year of the birth of Jesus Christ, four years before the commencement of the vulgar era.
61. Eleazar, brother to Joazar, made high-priest in 4004, of Christ 4, of the vulgar era 1.
62. Jesus, son of Siah, made high-priest in the year of the vulgar era 6. Joazar was made a second time in 7.
63. Ananus, son of Seth, for 11 years, from 4016 to 4027, of the vulgar era, 24.
64. Ishmael, son of Phabi, in 24.
65. Eleazar, son of Ananus, made in 24.
66. Simon, son of Camithus, made high-priest in 25.
67. Joseph, surnamed Caiaphas, made in 26, and continued till 35.
68. Jonathan, son of Ananus, made in 35, and continued till 37.
69. Theophilus, son of Jonathan, made in 37, and continued till 41.
70. Simon, surnamed Cantharus, and son of Simon Boethus, was made high-priest in 41.
71. Matthias, son of Ananus, made high-priest in 42.
72. Elioneus, made in 44, and continued till 45. Simon, son of Cantha-

rus, was a second time made high-priest, A.D. 45, and deposed the same year.

73. Joseph, son of Caneus, was made high-priest in A.D. 45, till 57.

74. Ananias, the son of Nebodeus, was made high-priest in the year of the vulgar era 47, and enjoyed the priesthood till 63.

75. Ismael was ordained high-priest, A.D. 63.

76. Joseph, surnamed Cabeî, in 63.

77. Ananus, the son of Ananus, in 63.

78. Jesus, the son of Ananus, in 64.

79. Jesus, the son of Gamaliel, in 64.

80. Matthias, the son of Theophilus, was made high-priest in the year of the vulgar Christian era 70.

81. Phannias, the son of Samuel, was made high-priest in the year 70, in which year Jerusalem and the temple were destroyed by the Romans, and a final period was put to the Jewish priesthood.

Of those who discharged the functions of high priest during the decline of the Jewish polity, there are two particularly mentioned in the New Testament, namely, Annas (John xviii. 13. Acts iv. 6.), and Caiaphas. (Matt. xxvi. 3. 57. John xviii. 13. 24. 28.) The former is by Josephus called Ananus, of which name Annas is an abridgment: the latter he calls Joseph, intimating also that he was known by the name of Caiaphas.¹ Annas enjoyed the singular felicity (which indeed had never happened to any other of the Jewish high priests), not only of having himself held the supreme pontifical office for many years, but also of seeing it filled by several successors out of his own family, five of them being his sons, and others his sons-in-law. Hence, although he was deprived of the high priesthood by the Romans, he afterwards continued to take the chief sway in the administration of the Jewish affairs; and is represented in the sacred history, together with Caiaphas, as being chief priest and exercising supreme authority. In order that the person of the high priest might be more holy, he was inaugurated with great splendour; being invested (after ablution was performed) with the sacred habiliments which conferred this dignity, and anointed with a precious oil prepared and preserved for this exclusive purpose. (Exod. xxix. 7. xxx. 23. *et seq.* Lev. viii. 12.) But, after the erection of the second temple, this anointing ceased, and the inauguration of the high priest was accomplished by arraying him with the pontifical robes worn by his predecessor.

Besides the garments which were common to the high priest, as well as to the inferior members of the sacerdotal order, there were four peculiar to himself, viz. 1. The *coat or robe of the ephod*, which was made of blue wool; on its hem there were seventy-two golden bells, separated from one another by as many artificial pomegranates.² 2. The *ephod*, a vest which was fastened on the shoulders, the hinder part reaching down to the heels, while the fore part descended only a little below the waist. It was of fine twisted linen, splendidly wrought with gold and purple: to each of

¹ Luke iii. 2. Acts iv. 6. In like manner Josephus (de Bel. Jud. lib. ii. c. 12. § 6.) places Jonathan, who had been high priest (Antiq. Jud. lib. xviii. c. 4. § 3.), and who still continued to possess great authority, before Ananias, who at that time discharged the functions of sovereign pontiff. (Ant. Jud. lib. xx. c. 5. § 2.) See also Lardner's Credibility, book i. c. 7. § 1. and book ii. c. 4. (Works, vol. i. pp. 143. 383—389.)

² Similar bells are still in use in the East. See Hasselquist's Travels, p. 58. and D'Arvieux's Travels in Arabia the Desart, p. 226.

the shoulder-straps of this ephod was fastened a precious stone, on which were engraven the names of the twelve tribes of Israel. 3. The *breastplate of judgment* or oracle, a piece of cloth doubled, one span square, and of similar texture and workmanship with the ephod: on it were set twelve precious stones, containing the engraved names of the twelve sons of Jacob, and also the words *Urim* and *Thummim*, signifying "lights and perfections," and emblematical of divine illumination. Concerning the nature of the Urim and Thummim, learned men are not agreed. All that we know with certainty is, that when the high priest went to ask counsel of Jehovah, he presented himself arrayed with this breastplate, and received the divine commands. This mode of consultation subsisted under the tabernacle erected by Moses in the wilderness, and until the building of Solomon's temple. 4. Lastly, the high priest wore a plate of pure gold upon his forehead, on which were engraven the two Hebrew words קֹדֶשׁ לַיהוָה (*KODESH LAJEHOVAH*), or *Holiness unto the Lord*, emblematical of that holiness which was the scope and end of the law. This plate was called the crown: it was tied to the high priest's tiara by a blue riband. With all these vestments he was obliged to be arrayed, whenever he ministered in the tabernacle or temple, but at other times he wore the ordinary dress of the priests: and this, according to some learned persons, was the reason why St. Paul (Acts xxiii. 5.) knew not that Ananias was the high priest, when he appeared before him in the Sanhedrin.¹ The supreme pontiff was not allowed to rend his garments, as the other Jews did, on any occasions of domestic calamity (Levit. xxi. 10.); but in the time of Jesus Christ it had become lawful, or at least was tolerated as an expression of horror at hearing what was deemed blasphemy against God. This will explain the conduct of Caiaphas, who is said (Matt. xxvi. 65.) to have rent his garments.²

The high priest, who was the chief man in Israel, and appeared before God in behalf of the people in their sacred services, and who was appointed for sacrifice, for blessing, and for intercession, was a type of Jesus Christ, that great high priest, who offered himself a sacrifice for sin, who blesses his people, and who *evermore liveth to make intercession for them*. The term *priest* is also applied to every true believer, who is enabled to offer up himself a spiritual sacrifice acceptable to God through Christ. (1 Pet. ii. 5. Rev. i. 6.)³

¹ The dress and ornaments of the high priest above noticed, together with the mode of consecrating him, as directed by Moses, are described at length in Exod. xxviii. and xxix. 1—37.

² Besides the authorities already cited in the course of this article, the reader who is desirous of investigating the nature and functions of the Jewish priesthood is referred to Reland's *Antiquitates veterum Hebræorum*, part ii. c. 1—6. pp. 141—238.; Ikenius's *Antiquitates Hebraicæ*, part i. c. 10. & 11. pp. 105—128.; and to Schacht's *Animadversiones ad Ikenii Antiquitates*, pp. 471—544. Dr. Jennings's *Jewish Antiquities*, book i. c. 5. pp. 95—174. Michaelis's *Commentaries on the Law of Moses*, vol. i. pp. 251—262. and Dr. Lightfoot's *Works*, vol. i. pp. 401. 915—918. and vol. ii. pp. 377—380. 397. 681.

³ The typical nature of the Jewish priesthood, especially of the high priest, is discussed by the Rev. W. Jones, in his *Lectures on the Figurative Language of Scripture*, and on the *Epistle to the Hebrews*. (*Works*. vol. iii. nn. 58—62. 223—227.)

IV. Next to the Levites, priests, and high priests, the *Officers of the Synagogue* may be mentioned here, as being in some degree sacred persons; since to them was confided the superintendence of those places which were set apart for prayer and instruction. Their functions and powers have been fully stated in pp. 241, 242. *supra*.

V. The NAZARITES or NAZARENES (as the Hebrew word *Nazir* implies) were persons separated from the use of certain things, and sequestered or consecrated to Jehovah. They are commonly regarded as sacred persons; a notice of their institute will be found *infra* in Chapter V. Sect. I. § III. 2.

VI. The RECHABITES are by many writers considered as a class of holy persons, who, like the Nazarites, separated themselves from the rest of the Jews, in order that they might lead a more pious life. But this is evidently a mistake; for they were not Israelites or Jews, but Kenites or Midianites, who used to live in tents, and traverse the country in quest of pasture for their cattle, as the Nabathæan Arabs antiently did, and as the modern Arabians, and Crim-Tatars (or Tartars¹) still do. Their manner of living was not the result of a religious institute, but a mere civil ordinance, grounded upon a national custom. They derived their name from Jonadab the son of Rechab, a man of eminent zeal for the pure worship of God against idolatry, who assisted king Jehu in destroying the house of Ahab and the worshippers of Baal. (2 Kings x. 15, 16. 23.) It was he who gave the rule of life to his children and their posterity, which is recorded by the prophet Jeremiah (xxxv. 5—7.); and which consisted of these three articles: 1. That they should drink no wine; 2. That they should neither possess nor occupy any houses, fields, or vineyards; and, 3. That they should dwell in tents. In these regulations he appears to have had no religious, but merely a prudential view, as is intimated in the reason assigned for them, viz. that they might live many days in the land where they were strangers. And such in fact would be the natural consequence of their temperate and quiet mode of living. On the first invasion of Nebuchadnezzar, with intent to besiege Jerusalem, these Rechabites apprehending themselves in more danger in the open country, came to Jerusalem for safety: by these people God intended to convince the Jews of their disobedience to him; and therefore he ordered his prophet Jeremiah to bring them to an apartment of the temple, and there offer them wine to drink, which when they refused, on account of its being contrary to their institute, which they never had violated, the prophet, after due commendation of their obedience, addressed the Jews, and reproached them who were God's peculiar people, for being less observant of his laws, than these poor Rechabites had been of the injunctions of their ancestor. (Jer. xxxv.) Wherefore Jehovah declares (ver. 18, 19.) that, *because the Rechabites had obeyed the*

¹ See Mrs. Holderness's *Notes relating to the Manners and Customs of the Crim-Tatars*. London, 1821. 12mo.

precepts of Jonadab their father, therefore Jonadab should not want a man to stand before him for ever. The Rechabites flourished as a community about one hundred and eighty years : but after the captivity, they were dispersed, unless the Essenes, who are noticed in a subsequent section, succeeded them in their way of life.¹

VII. The PROPHETS were eminently distinguished among the persons accounted holy by the Jews : they were raised up by God in an extraordinary manner for the performance of the most sacred functions. Originally they were called *Seers* : they discovered things yet future, declared the will of God, and announced their divine messages, both to kings and people, with a confidence and freedom that could only be produced by the conviction that they were indeed authorised messengers of Jehovah. The gift of prophecy was not always annexed to the priesthood : there were prophets of all the tribes, and sometimes even among the Gentiles. The office of a prophet was not confined to the prediction of future events ; it was their province to instruct the people, and they interpreted the law of God : hence the words *prophet* and *prophecy* are, in many passages of the Scriptures, synonymous with interpreter or teacher, and interpretation or teaching. It is unanimously agreed both by Jews and Christians that Malachi was the last of the prophets under the Old Testament dispensation : and it is a remarkable fact, that so long as there were prophets among the Jews, they were not divided by sects or heresies, although they often fell into idolatry. This circumstance may thus be accounted for. — As the prophets received their communications of the divine will *immediately* from God himself, there was no alternative for the Jews : either the people must obey the prophets, and receive their interpretations of the law, or no longer acknowledge that God who inspired them. When, however, the law of God came to be explained by weak and fallible men, who seldom agreed in their opinions, sects and parties were the unavoidable result of such conflicting sentiments.²

¹ Lamy's *Apparatus Biblicus*, vol. i. p. 223. Michaelis's *Commentaries on the Law of Moses*, vol. i. pp. 227, 228. Mede's *Works*, p. 127. Calmet, *Commentaire Littéraire*, tome vi. p. xvii. The reader will find an instructive discourse on the history of the Rechabites, in Dr. Townson's *Works*, vol. ii. pp. 215—225.

² For a more particular account of the sacred prophets, see Vol. IV. Part I. Chap. IV. pp. 141—147.

CHAPTER III.

SACRED THINGS.

On the Sacrifices and other Offerings of the Jews.

General classification of sacrifices and offerings ; — I. BLOODY OFFERINGS, and the divine origin of sacrifices ; — 1. Different kinds of victims ; — 2. Selection of victims ; — 3. Manner of presenting them ; — 4. Libations ; — 5. Immolation of the sacrifice ; — 6. The place and time appointed for sacrificing ; — 7. Different kinds of fire-sacrifices ; — i. Burnt offerings ; — ii. Peace-offerings ; — iii. Sin-offerings ; — iv. Trespass-offerings ; — National, regular, weekly, monthly, and annual sacrifices. — II. UNBLOODY OFFERINGS. — III. DRINK-OFFERINGS. — IV. ORDINARY OBLATIONS, — the shew-bread and incense. — V. VOLUNTARY OBLATIONS. — Corban. — VI. PRESCRIBED OBLATIONS ; — 1. First-fruits ; — 2. Tithes.

THE sacrifices and oblations of the Jews demand particular notice in this sketch of their ecclesiastical state. Such a ritual as they were enjoined to observe, the multiplicity of victims they were appointed statelily to offer, together with the splendour of that external worship in which they were daily engaged, — all tended to replenish and adorn their language with numerous allusions, and striking metaphors derived from the pomp of their religion. Hence it is that the writings of the Jews, more than of any other people, abound with phrases and terms borrowed from the temple worship and service. The psalms and prophetic writings may in particular be adduced in illustration of this remark. *Purge me with hyssop, says David, and I shall be clean. — Thou shalt be pleased with the sacrifices of righteousness.* (Psal. li. 7. 19.) *Let my prayer come before thee as incense, and the lifting up of my hands as the evening sacrifice.* (Psal. cxli. 2.) *Therefore will I offer the sacrifice of joy.* (Psal. cxvi. 17.) *The sin of Judah, says Jeremiah, is - - - graven upon the horns of your altars.* (Jer. xvii. 1.) *Take away all our iniquity and receive us graciously ; so will we render thee the calves of our lips.* (Hos. xiv. 2.) Nor are similar examples wanting in the New Testament, whose inspired authors being educated in the Jewish religion, retain the same phraseology, which has enriched their writings with numerous beautiful and expressive allusions to the national sacrifices and ceremonies.

Michaelis classes the offerings prescribed to the Israelites under three general heads — namely, *bloody offerings*, or sacrifices strictly so called ; *unbloody offerings*, or those taken only from the vegetable kingdom ; and *drink-offerings*, or libations, which were a kind of accompaniment to the two preceding. We shall follow this classi-

fication, as enabling us to present to our readers the most compendious account of the Jewish sacrifices.

I. BLOODY OFFERINGS were sacrifices properly and strictly so called; by which we may understand the infliction of death on a living creature, generally by the effusion of its blood in a way of religious worship, and the presenting of this act to God as a supplication for the pardon of sin, and as a supposed mean of compensation for the insult and injury offered by sin to his majesty and government. Sacrifices have in all ages, and by almost every nation, been regarded as necessary to placate the divine anger, and to render the Deity propitious¹: but whether this universal notion derived its origin from divine revelation, or was suggested by conscious guilt and a dread of the divine displeasure, is a question that cannot be easily decided. It is however not improbable that it originated in the former, and prevailed under the influence of the latter. The Scripture account of sacrifices leads us to conclude that they were instituted by divine appointment, immediately after the entrance of sin by the fall of Adam and Eve, to be a type or significant emblem of the great atonement or all-sufficient sacrifice of Christ.² Accordingly we find Abel, Noah, Abraham, Job, and others, offering sacrifices in the faith of the Messiah that was to be revealed; and the divine acceptance of their sacrifices is particularly recorded.

1. In all bloody sacrifices it was essential that the animals slaughtered should be clean; but it does not appear that all clean animals were to be offered indiscriminately. Fishes were not brought to the altar; and hence the Israelites are no where prohibited from eating their blood, but only that of birds and quadrupeds. (Lev. vii. 26.) It would seem that *all* clean birds might be offered, (Lev. xiv. 4—7.) though the dove was the most common offering of this class. Of quadrupeds, oxen, sheep, and goats were the only kinds which were destined for the altar. No wild beasts were admissible: and hence comes the expression in the law of Moses (Deut. xii. 15. 22. xv. 22.), *It shall be eaten like the roe or the hart*; by which he means to intimate that, in killing a beast, all religious intention and all idea of sacrifice was to be avoided.³

2. In the selection of the victims, the utmost care was taken to choose such only as were free from every blemish. Unless it were pure and immaculate, it was to be rejected, as a sacrifice unacceptable to Jehovah. (Levit. xxii. 22.) In a beautiful allusion to this

¹ To this notion of sacrifice our Saviour alluded in John xvi. 2. where he tells his disciples that such would be the enmity with which they should be pursued, that he who should kill them would be deemed to have slain a sacrifice highly acceptable to the Almighty — “He that killeth you shall think he doeth God service.” In reference also to this notion of sacrifice, the apostle by a very beautiful and expressive figure represents Christ as loving us, and giving himself for us, *an offering and a sacrifice to God of a sweet-smelling savour.* (Eph. v. 2.) Harwood’s Introd. to the New Test. vol. ii. p. 318.

² The divine origin of sacrifices is fully proved by Archbishop Magee, in his Discourses on the Atonement, vol. i. pp. 44—60. and vol. ii. pp. 22—46. 184—189.

³ Michaelis’s Commentaries, vol. iii. p. 95.

circumstance, St. Paul beseeches Christians, by the mercies of God, to *present their bodies a living sacrifice, holy and acceptable*, which is their reasonable service. (Rom. xii. 1.) Hence also Jesus Christ is styled a *lamb without blemish and without spot*. (1 Pet. i. 19.) Further, it was a custom among nations contiguous to Judæa, and particularly among the Egyptians¹, to *set a seal* upon a victim that was deemed proper for sacrifice. With this custom the Jews could not be unacquainted; and it is possible that similar precautions were in use among themselves, especially as they were so strictly enjoined to have their sacrifices *without spot and without blemish*. To such a usage Jesus Christ is supposed to have alluded, when speaking of the sacrifice of himself, he says — *Him hath God the Father SEALED*. (John vi. 27. 51.) “Infinite justice found Jesus Christ to be without spot or blemish, and therefore *sealed*, pointed out and accepted him as a proper sacrifice and atonement for the sin of the whole world. Collate Heb. vii. 26—28. Eph. v. 27. 2 Pet. iii. 14. and especially Heb. ix. 13, 14. *For, if the blood of BULLS and of goats, and the ashes of an heifer, sprinkling the unclean, sanctifieth,—how much more shall the blood of Christ, who through the Eternal Spirit offered himself WITHOUT SPOT to God, purge your consciences from dead works!*”²

3. The victim thus chosen, being found immaculate, was led up to the altar by the person offering the sacrifice; who laid his hand upon its head, on which he leaned with all his strength; and, while the sacrifice was offering said some particular prayers; and if several persons united in offering the same victim, they put their hands upon it in succession.³ By this imposition of hands the person presenting the victim acknowledged the sacrifice to be his own; that he loaded it with his iniquities; that he offered it as an atonement for his sins; that he was worthy of death because he had sinned, having forfeited his life by violating the law of God; and that he intreated God to accept the life of the innocent animal in the place of his own. In this respect the victims of the Old Testament were types of Jesus Christ, *the lamb of God that TAKETH AWAY the sin of the*

¹ The following account of the manner in which the Egyptians provided white bulls for their sacrifices, will materially explain the custom above alluded to. — “They sacrifice white bulls to Apis, and for that reason make the following trial. If they find one black hair upon him, they consider him as unclean. In order that they may know this with certainty, the priest appointed for this purpose views every part of the animal both standing and lying on the ground: after this, he draws out his tongue, to see if he be clean by certain signs; and in the last place he inspects the hairs of his tail, that he may be sure they are, as by nature they should be. If, after this search, the animal is found unblemished, he signifies it by *tying a label to his horns*; then, having applied wax, he *seals it with his ring* on the ground: for it is death to sacrifice one of these animals, unless he has been *marked with such a seal*.” Herodotus, lib. ii. c. 38. vol. i. p. 113. edit. Oxon.

² Dr. A. Clarke, on John vi. 27.

³ The nature and mystical import of laying hands on the head of the victim are largely considered by Archbishop Magee in his *Discourses on the Atonement*, vol. i. pp. 336—377.

world (John i. 29.), and on whom Jehovah in the fulness of time laid the iniquity of us all.¹ (Isa. liii. 6. with 1 Pet. ii. 24.)

4. Further, in certain cases it was required that the victim should be one, *on which never came yoke* (Numb. xix. 2. Deut. xxi. 3. 1 Sam. vi. 7.); because any animal which had been used for a common purpose, was deemed improper to be offered in sacrifice to God.²

5. When the victim devoted to the sacrifice was brought before the altar, the priest, having implored the divine favour and acceptance by prayer, poured wine upon its head: and after the performance of this solemn act of religion, which was termed a *libation*, the victim was instantly led to the slaughter. To this circumstance St. Paul, knowing the time of his martyrdom to be very near, has a very striking allusion: representing this rite, which immediately preceded the death of the victim, as already performed upon himself, implying that he was now devoted to death, and that his dissolution would speedily follow. *I am now ready to be offered*, says he (2 Tim. iv. 6.); literally, *I am already poured out as a libation; the time of my departure is at hand*. A similar expressive sacrificial allusion occurs in Phil. ii. 17. *Yea*, says the holy apostle, *and if I be poured out upon the sacrifice and service of your faith, I joy and rejoice with you all*. In this passage he represents the faith of the Philippians as the sacrificial victim, and compares his blood, willingly and joyfully

¹ On the vicarious import of the Mosaic sacrifices, see Archbishop Magee's *Discourses on the Atonement*, vol. i. pp. 352—366.

² The heathens, who appear to have borrowed much from the Hebrews, were very scrupulous in this particular. Neither the Greeks, nor the Romans (who had the same religion, and consequently the same sacrifices with the Greeks), nor indeed the Egyptians, would offer an animal in sacrifice that had been employed in agriculture. Just such a sacrifice as that prescribed here does Diomedes vow to offer to Pallas. *Iliad*. x. 291—294.

Ὡς νυν μοι ἐθέλουσα παρῖασσο, καὶ με φύλασσε.

Σοὶ δ' αὖ ἐγὼ βέξω βουνὴν ἡνιν, εὐρυμετώπων,

Ἀδμητην, ἣν οὐπὶ ζυγὸν ἡγάγεον ἀνὴρ·

Τὴν τοι ἐγὼ βέξω, χρυσοῦν κερασὶν περιχένας.

So now be present, O celestial maid,

So still continue to the race thine aid.

A yearling heifer falls beneath the stroke,

Untamed, unconscious of the galling yoke.

With ample forehead and with spreading horns,

Whose tapering tops refulgent gold adorns.

Forre, altered.

In the very same words Nestor promises a similar sacrifice to Pallas. *Odys.* iii. 382.

Thus also VIRGIL. *Georg.* iv. 550.

Quatuor eximios præstanti corpore tauros,

Ducit, et intacta totidem cervice juvenas.

From his herd he culls,

For slaughter, four the fairest of his bulls;

Four heifers from his female stock he took,

All fair, and all unknowing of the yoke.

DRYDEN.

It is very probable that the Gentiles learnt their first sacrificial rites from the Patriarchs; and on this account we need not wonder to find so many coincidences in the sacrificial system of the patriarchs and Jews, and of all the neighbouring nations. (Dr. A. Clarke, on Numb. ix. 2.)

to be shed in martyrdom, to the libation poured out on occasion of the sacrifice.*

6. The animal thus conducted to the altar was next immolated, by cutting the throat and windpipe entirely through at one stroke; the blood being caught in a vessel, and sprinkled round about upon the altar. By this sprinkling the atonement was made, for the blood was the life of the beast, and it was always supposed that life went to redeem life. (Lev. i. 5—7.) The blood remaining after these aspersions, was poured out at the foot of the altar, either all at once, or at different times, according to the nature of the sacrifice offered. Around the altar there was a kind of trench into which the blood fell; whence it was conveyed by subterraneous channels into the brook Cedron. This altar, being very high, is considered by Lamy as a type of the cross to which our Saviour was fixed, and which he washed with his precious blood. The victim being thus immolated, the skin was stripped from the neck; its breast was opened; its bowels were taken out, and the back bone was cleft. It was then divided into quarters; so that, both externally and internally, it was fully exposed to view. To this custom of laying open the victim, St. Paul has a very beautiful and emphatic allusion in one of the most animated descriptions ever written, of the mighty effects produced by the preached Gospel. (Heb. iv. 12, 13.) *The word of God is quick and powerful, sharper than any two-edged sword, piercing even to the dividing asunder of soul and spirit, and of the joints and marrow, and is a discernor of the thoughts and intents of the heart. Neither is there any creature that is not manifest in his sight; for all things are naked and opened to the eyes of him to whom we must give an account.* Previously to laying the sacrifice on the altar, it was salted for the fire (Lev. ii. 13. Ezek. xliii. 24. Mark ix. 46.); the law prohibiting any thing to be offered there which was not salted: and according to the nature of the sacrifice, either the whole or part of the victim was consumed upon the altar, where the priests kept a fire perpetually burning.

7. Before the building of the temple, sacrifices were offered up at the door of the tabernacle; but after its erection it was not lawful to offer them elsewhere. (Deut. xii. 14.) This prohibition took from the Jews the liberty of sacrificing in any other place. The victims might indeed be slain in any part of the priest's court, but not without its precincts: and there they were also obliged to sacrifice the paschal lamb. All the victims were to be offered by daylight, and the blood was always to be sprinkled on the same day that they were slain; as it became polluted as soon as the sun was set. If, however, the sprinkling had been made in the day-time, the members and entrails of the victim might be consumed during the night.

8. The sacrifices of the altar were, in general, called by the Hebrews

* Parkhurst's Greek Lexicon, p. 621. Drs. Macknight and A. Clarke on the passages cited.

Korbanim, that is, offerings or oblations to God, from the Hebrew word *karab*, to approach or bring nigh. This term consequently denotes something *brought nigh*, in order to be dedicated or offered to God, to whom the person offering thus had access in the way appointed by the law; and therefore, at the close of the enumeration of all offerings by fire it is added (Lev. vii. 37, 38.), *This is the law which the Lord commanded Moses in Mount Sinai, in the day that he commanded the children of Israel to offer or bring nigh their KORBANIM*, that is, offerings or sacrifices of all sorts.¹

The Jewish fire-sacrifices were of three kinds: viz.

i. The BURNT-OFFERINGS, or *Holocausts*, were free-will offerings wholly devoted to God, according to the primitive patriarchal usage. The man himself was to bring them before the Lord, and they were offered in the manner described in page 279. The victim to be offered was, according to the person's ability, a bullock without blemish, or a male of the sheep or goats, or a turtle-dove or pigeon. (Lev. i. 3. 10. 14.) If, however, he was too poor to bring either of these, he was to offer a *mincha* or meat-offering, of which an account is given in a subsequent page.² The burnt-offerings are in Hebrew termed עֹלָה (*OLAH*), which signifies to *ascend*; because this offering, as being wholly consumed, ascended, as it were, to God in smoke or vapour. It was a very expressive type of the sacrifice of Christ, as nothing less than his *complete* and full sacrifice could make atonement for the sins of the world.

ii. The PEACE-OFFERINGS (Levit. iii. 1.) were also free-will offerings, in token of peace and reconciliation between God and man: they were either eucharistical, that is, offered as thanksgivings for blessings received, or were offered for the impetration of mercies. These offerings consisted either of animals, or of bread or dough; if the former, *part* of them was burnt upon the altar, especially all the fat, as an offering to the Lord; and the remainder was to be eaten by the priest and the party offering. To this sacrifice of praise or thanksgiving Saint Paul alludes in Heb. xiii. 15, 16. In this kind of sacrifices the victims might be either male or female, provided they were without blemish. The parts of both, which were appropriated to the priests and Levites, were called *heave* or *wave offerings*; because they were *heaved* or *lifted* up towards heaven, and *waved* to and fro, before they were eaten, in acknowledgment of the goodness and kindness of God, and also in token of their being consecrated to him. (Lev. iii. 1—6. Exod. xxix. 26, 27. Numb. xviii. 24—28.)

The peace-offerings are in Hebrew termed שְׁלָמִים (*SHALAMIM*), from שָׁלַם (*SHALAM*), to complete or make whole: because, by these offerings that which was *deficient* was considered as being now *made up*; and that which was broken, viz. the covenant of God, by his creature's transgression, was supposed to be made whole: so that,

¹ Dr. Owen on the Epistle to the Hebrews, vol. i. Exercitat. xxiv. p. 307.

² See *infra* 225.

after such an offering, the sincere and conscientious mind was authorised to consider itself as reconciled to God, and that it might lay confident hold on this covenant of peace. To this Saint Paul alludes in that fine passage contained in Eph. ii. 14—19.

The appointed seasons and occasions of the peace-offering were, 1. At the consecration of a priest. (Exod. xxix. 1—37.) 2. At the expiration of the Nazarite vow. (Numb. vi. 13—21.) 3. At the solemn dedication of the tabernacle and temple; and 4. *At the purification of a leper.*¹

iii. SIN-OFFERINGS, in Hebrew termed חַטָּאת (CHATAH), (from the word חָטָא (CHATA) to miss the mark), were offered for sins committed either through ignorance, or wilfully against knowledge; and which God always punished unless they were expiated. These offerings in general consisted of a sin-offering to God, and a burnt-offering, accompanied with restitution of damage (Levit. v. 2—19. vi. 1—7.), conformably to which our Lord requires previous reconciliation with an injured brother, including restitution, before the burnt-offering or gift would be acceptable to God. (Matt. v. 23, 24.) St. Paul (Eph. v. 2.) terms Christ's giving himself for us an offering (i. e. a peace-offering), and a *sacrifice* or sin-offering to God for a sweet-smelling savour. (Compare Lev. iv. 31.) In warm climates nothing is more refreshing than fragrant odours: and as, in the highly figurative language of the antient Hebrews, *smelling* is used to denote the perception of a *moral quality* in another, God is said to smell a sweet savour from sacrifice, to signify that he perceived with pleasure the good disposition which the offerer expressed by such an act of worship. When, therefore, the apostle tells us that Christ gave himself for us, an offering and a sweet-smelling sacrifice to God, he teaches us that Christ's sacrifice for us was highly acceptable to God, not only as a signal instance of obedience to his Father's will, but also on account of its happy influence in establishing the moral government of God.² The sacrifices offered for the purification of lepers, as well as of women after child-birth (Levit. xii. Luke ii. 24.), were reckoned among the sin-offerings, inasmuch as leprosy and the pains of child-bearing were considered as pu-

¹ The signs of that horrible disease in oriental countries, the leprosy, and of its cure are minutely described in Levit. xiii. for the information of the priests, who were required to inspect and certify the fact, in order to re-admit the patient into society. "Among the sacrifices and ceremonies of his purification, which are minutely described in Levit. xiv. the following is remarkable: The priest was required to take two small birds, and to kill one of them over an earthen vessel filled with river water, so that the blood might be mixed with the water. He was then to dip the other or living bird into the water, and sprinkle the leper without seven times with a stick of cedar wood, upon which a bunch of hyssop was tied with a scarlet thread; after which the priest was to pronounce him purified, and let loose the living bird into the open air. (Levit. xiv. 2—7.) This ceremony seems to be typical of the purification of our sins by the sprinkling of the blood of Jesus Christ (Isa. lii. 15. 1 Pet. i. 2.), which flowed out of his wounded side mixed with water (John xix. 34.); while the dismissal of the living bird resembles that of the scape-goat into the wilderness, with the sins of the leper upon him. Our Lord expressly commanded the lepers, whom he healed, to conform to the law." (Matt. viii. 4. Mark i. 44. Luke v. 14. xvii. 14.) Dr. Hales's Analysis, vol. ii. book i. p. 273.

² Macknight on Eph. v. 2.

nishments for some particular sin; though both were accompanied by eucharistic sacrifices for the recovery of the persons offering them. Maimonides adds, that if the person who offered this sacrifice did not repent, and make public confession of his sins, he was not cleansed or purified by it.¹

iv. The TRESPASS-OFFERINGS were made, where the party offering had just reason to doubt whether he had violated the law of God or not. (Levit. v. 17, 18.) They do not appear to have differed materially from sin-offerings.² In both these kinds of sacrifices, the person who offered them placed his hands on the victim's head (if a sin-offering), and confessed his sin over it, and his trespass over the trespass-offering; saying, "I have sinned, I have done iniquity, I have trespassed, and have done thus and thus, and do return by repentance before thee, and with *this* I make atonement." The animal was then considered as vicariously bearing the sins of the person who brought it.³ In Isa. liii. 10. Jesus Christ is said to make his soul an offering for sin, אָשָׁם (ASHAM), the very word used in the law of Moses to denote a trespass-offering.

All these sacrifices were occasional, and had reference to individuals; but there were others which were national and regular, daily, weekly, monthly, and annual. The *perpetual or daily sacrifice* was a burnt-offering, consisting of two lambs, which were offered every day, morning and evening, at the third and ninth hours. (Exod. xxix. 38—40. Levit. vi. 9—18. Numb. xxviii. 1—8.) They were burnt as holocausts, but by a small fire, that they might continue burning the longer. With each of these victims was offered a bread-offering and a drink-offering of strong wine. The morning sacrifice, according to the Jews, made atonement for the sins committed in the night, and the evening sacrifice expiated those committed during the day.

The *Weekly Sacrifice* on every sabbath day was equal to the daily sacrifice, and was offered in addition to it. (Numb. xxviii. 9, 10.)

The *Monthly Sacrifice*, on every new moon, or at the beginning of each month, consisted of two young bullocks, one ram, and seven lambs of a year old, together with a kid for a sin-offering, and a suitable bread and drink-offering. (Numb. xxviii. 11—14.)

The *Yearly Sacrifices* were those offered on the great annual festivals; viz. 1. The paschal lamb at the passover, which was celebrated at the commencement of the Jewish *sacred* year; 2. On the day of Pentecost, or day of first-fruits; 3. On the new moon, or first day of the seventh month, which was the beginning of their *civil* year, or in-gathering of the fruits and vintage; and all these stated burnt-offerings were to be accompanied with a sin-offering of a goat, to shew their insufficiency to "make the corners thereunto

¹ De Ratione Sacrificii, c. iii. n. 13.

² Michaelis is of opinion that sin-offerings were made for sins of *commission*, and trespass-offerings for sins of *omission*. Commentaries, vol. iii. p. 96.

³ Dr. A. Clarke on Exod. xxix. 10.

perfect" (Numb. xxviii. Heb. x. 1.); 4. Lastly, on the day of expiation, or great day of atonement. As a particular account is given of these solemn festivals in the following section, we proceed briefly to notice the second general class of sacrifices, viz.

II. The UNBLOODY SACRIFICES or MEAT-OFFERINGS (Levit. ii.), which were taken solely from the vegetable kingdom. They consisted of meal, bread, cakes, ears of corn, and parched grain, with oil and frankincense prepared according to the divine command. Regularly they could not be presented as sin-offerings, except in the single case of the person who had sinned being so poor, that the offering of two young pigeons or two turtle doves exceeded his means. They were to be free from leaven or honey: but to all of them it was necessary to add pure salt, that is, saltpetre.

III. DRINK-OFFERINGS were an accompaniment to both bloody and unbloody sacrifices; they were never used separately, and consisted of wine, which appears to have been partly poured upon the brow of the victim in order to consecrate it, and partly allotted to the priests, who drank it with their portions of both these kinds of offerings. The Psalmist shews how the use of drink-offerings degenerated amongst idolaters, who in their superstitious rage made use of the blood of living creatures, perhaps of men, in their libations. *Their* DRINK-OFFERINGS OF BLOOD, says he, *will I not offer*. (Psal. xvi. 4.)¹

Besides the various kinds of sacrifices above described, there were some oblations made by the Jews consisting of incense, bread, and other things: which have been divided by Lamy into three sorts, viz. such as were *ordinary* or *common*; *voluntary* or free oblations; and such as were *prescribed*.

IV. The ORDINARY OBLATIONS were, 1. Of the *Show-bread* (Heb. *bread of the face*), which consisted of twelve loaves, according to the number of the tribes of Israel. They were placed hot, every sabbath day, by the priests, upon the golden table in the sanctuary, before the Lord; when they removed the stale loaves which had been exposed for the whole of the preceding week. 2. *Incense*, consisting of several fragrant spices, prepared according to the instructions given to Moses in Exod. xxx. 34—36. It was offered twice every day, morning and evening, by the officiating priest, upon an altar of gold, where no bloody sacrifice was to come, during which solemn rite the people prayed without in silence. (Luke i. 10.) But on the great day of expiation the high priest himself took fire from the great altar in a golden censer; and, on descending from the altar, he received incense from one of the priests, which he

¹ Schulzii Archæol. Heb. pp. 250—280. Lamy, Apparatus Biblicus, vol. i. pp. 187—203. Relandi Antiq. Sacr. I. Hebæorum, part. iii. cap. i.—v. pp. 290—368. Ikenii Antiq. Heb. part. i. cap. xiii. xiv. pp. 152—191. Beausobre and L'Enfant's Introd. to the New Test. (Bishop Watson's Tracts, vol. iii. pp. 196—199.) Jennings's Jewish Antiquities, book i. chap. v. pp. 155—174. Michaelis's Commentaries, vol. iii. pp. 94—97. 109—115. 246—254. Dr. Hales's Analysis, vol. ii. book ii. pp. 270—272. Jahn, Archæol. Bib. pp. 506—525. Dr. Owen on the Epistle to the Hebrews, vol. i. Exercit. xxiv. pp. 306—318. Dr. Lightfoot's Works vol. i. pp. 926—941.

offered on the golden altar. During such offering the people prayed silently without : and to this most solemn silence St. John alludes in Rev. viii. 1., where he says that *there was silence in heaven about the space of half an hour.*¹ To this oblation of incense the Psalmist refers (cxli. 2.) in his devotions, and explains his meaning by his application of it : *Let my prayer be set forth in thy sight as the incense.* — “As the smoke and odour of this offering was wafted into the holy place, close by the veil of which stood the altar of incense, so do the prayers of the faithful ascend upwards and find admission to the highest heaven.”² (Acts x. 4.)

V. The VOLUNTARY or FREE OBLATIONS were either the fruits of promises or of vows ; but the former were not considered so strictly obligatory as the latter, of which there were two kinds : 1. The *vow of consecration*, when any thing was devoted either for sacrifice or for the service of the temple, as wine, wood, salt, &c. ; and 2. The *vow of engagement*, when persons engaged to do something that was not in itself unlawful, as not to eat of some particular meat, nor to wear some particular habits, not to drink wine, nor to cut their hair, &c. When the Jews made a vow, they made use of one of these two forms : “*I charge myself with a burnt-offering ;*” or, “*I charge myself with the price of this animal for a burnt-offering.*” Besides these they had other shorter forms ; for instance, when they devoted all they had, they merely said, “*all I have shall be corban,*” that is, “*I make an oblation of it to God.*” Among other false doctrines taught by the Pharisees, who were the depositaries of the sacred treasury, was this, that as soon as a person had pronounced to his father or mother this form of consecration or offering, *Be it corban* (that is, devoted), *whatever of mine shall profit thee* (Mark vii. 11.), he thereby consecrated all he had to God, and must not thenceforth do any thing for his indigent parents if they solicited support from him. With great reason therefore does Jesus Christ reproach them with having destroyed, by their tradition, not only that commandment of the law which enjoins children to honour their fathers and mothers, but also another divine precept, which under the severest penalty, forbade that kind of dishonour which consists in contumelious words. (Mark vii. 9, 10, 13.) They, however, proceeded, even further than this unnatural gloss ; for, though the son did not directly

¹ Sir Isaac Newton on the Apocalypse, p. 264. See also Woodhouse on Rev. viii. 1. p. 199.

² Jones on the Fig. Lang. of Script. Lect. iv. towards the close. “The prayer of faith,” adds this learned and pious writer, “is acceptable to God, as the fragrance of incense is agreeable to the senses of man ; and, as the incense was offered twice a day, in the morning and evening, the spirit of this service is to be kept up at those times throughout all generations. The prophet Malachi (upon a forced and erroneous interpretation of whose words alone the church of Rome has founded and defended the use of incense in her worship) foretold that it should be observed throughout the world (Mal. i. 11.), and in the Revelation we hear of this incense as now actually carried up and presented in heaven (Rev. viii. 3.) Happy are they who fulfil this service ; and at the rising and going down of the sun send up this offering to heaven, as all Christians are supposed to do, at least twice in every day.” Ibid. (Works, vol. iii. p. 66.)

give, or mean to give, any thing to God at that time, yet if he afterwards should repent of his rashness, and wish to supply them with any thing, what he had formerly said precluded the possibility of doing so; for his property became eventually devoted to God, and, according to the Pharisaic doctrine, the sacred treasury had a claim upon it, in preference to the parents. The words "be it corban," or devoted, consequently implied an imprecation against himself, if he should ever afterwards bestow any thing for the relief of his parents: as if he should say to them, "May I incur all the infamy of sacrilege and perjury if ever ye get any thing from me;" than which it is not easy to conceive of any thing spoken by a son to his parents, more contemptuous or more barbarous, and therefore justly denominated *κακολογια*, "opprobrious language."¹

VI. The PRESCRIBED OBLATIONS were either first-fruits or tithes.

1. All the *First Fruits*, both of fruit and animals, were consecrated to God (Exod. xxii. 29. Numb. xviii. 12, 13. Deut. xxvi. 2. Neh. x. 35, 36.)²; and the first-fruits of sheep's wool were offered for the use of the Levites. (Deut. xviii. 4.) The amount of this gift is not specified in the law of Moses, which leaves it entirely to the pleasure of the giver: the Talmudical writers, however, inform us, that liberal persons were accustomed to give the fortieth, and even the thirtieth; while such as were covetous or penurious gave only a sixtieth part. The first of these they called an oblation with a good eye, and the second an oblation with an evil eye. To this traditional saying our Lord is, by some learned men, supposed to have alluded in Matt. xx. 15. Among animals, the males only belonged to God: and the Jews not only had a right, but were even obliged, to redeem them in the case of men and unclean animals, which could not be offered in sacrifice. These first-fruits were offered from the feast of pentecost until that of dedication, because after that time the fruits were neither so beautiful nor so good as before. Further, the Jews were prohibited from gathering in the harvest until they had offered to God the *omer*, that is, the new sheaf, which was presented the day after the great day of unleavened bread: neither were they allowed to bake any bread made of new corn until they had offered the new loaves upon the altar on the day of pentecost; without which all the corn was regarded as unclean and unholy. To this St. Paul alludes in Rom. xi. 16.; where he says, *If the FIRST-FRUIT be holy, the lump also is holy*. The presentation of the first-fruits was a solemn and festive ceremony. At the beginning of harvest, the sanhedrin deputed a number of priests to go into the fields and reap a handful of the first ripe corn: and these, attended by great crowds of people, went out of one of the gates of Jerusalem into the neighbouring corn-fields. The first-

¹ Dr. Campbell's Translation of the Four Gospels, vol. ii. pp. 379—382. third edition,

² From the Jewish custom of offering first-fruits to Jehovah, the heathens borrowed a similar rite. See Pliny, Nat. Hist. lib. xviii. c. 2. Horace, Sat. lib. ii. Sat. v. 12. Tibullus, Eleg. lib. i. El. i. 13.

fruits thus reaped were carried with great pomp and universal rejoicing through the streets of Jerusalem to the temple. The Jewish writers say that an ox preceded them with gilded horns and an olive crown upon his head, and that a pipe played before them until they approached the city: on entering it they crowned the first-fruits, that is, exposed them to sight with as much pomp as they could, and the chief officers of the temple went out to meet them. They were then devoutly offered to God in grateful acknowledgment of his providential goodness in giving them the fruits of the earth. These first-fruits, or handful of the first ripe grain, gave notice to all who beheld them that the *general* harvest would soon be gathered in. How beautiful and striking is St. Paul's allusion to this religious ceremony in that most consolatory and closely reasoned chapter, the fifteenth of his first Epistle to the Corinthians, in which, from the resurrection of Jesus Christ, he argues and establishes the certainty of the general resurrection: and represents Christ as the first-fruits of a glorious and universal harvest of all the sleeping dead! *Now is Christ risen, and become the FIRST-FRUITS of them that slept.* (1 Cor. xv. 20.) The use which the apostle makes of this image is very extensive. "In the first place, the growing of grain from the earth where it was buried is an exact image of the resurrection of the body: for, as the one is *sown*, so is the other, and neither is *quickened* except it first die and be buried. Then the whole harvest, from its relation to the first-fruits, explains and ensures the order of our resurrection. For, is the sheaf of the first-fruits reaped? then is the whole harvest ready. Is Christ risen from the dead? then shall all rise in like manner. Is he accepted of God as an holy offering? then shall every sheaf that has grown up with him be taken from the earth and sanctified in its proper order: — *Christ the FIRST-FRUITS, and afterwards they that are Christ's at his coming.*"¹ (1 Cor. xv. 23.)

2. Besides the first-fruits, the Jews also paid the *Tenths* or *Tithes* of all they possessed. (Numb. xviii. 21.) They were in general collected of all the produce of the earth. (Lev. xxvii. 30. Dent. xiv. 22, 23. Neh. xiii. 5. 10.), but chiefly of corn, wine, and oil, and were rendered every year except the sabbatical year. When these tithes were paid, the owner of the fruits further gave another tenth part, which was carried up to Jerusalem, and eaten in the temple at offering feasts, as a sign of rejoicing and gratitude to God. These are called *second tithes*.² The Levites paid a tenth of the tithes they received to the priests. Lastly, there were tithes allotted to the poor, for whom there was also a corner left in every field,

¹ Jones's Works, vol. iii. p. 64. Harwood's Introd. to the New Test. vol. ii. p. 307. Michaelis's Commentaries, vol. iii. pp. 146—149. Beausobre's Introd. to the New Test. (vol. iii. p. 200. of Bishop Watson's Collection of Tracts.) Dr. Lightfoot's Works, vol. i. p. 984. vol. ii. pp. 184. 306, 307. folio edit. Lamy's Apparatus, vol. i. p. 204. Ikenii Antiq. Hebr. part i. c. 15. pp. 20—224. Schulzii Archæol. Hebr. pp. 287—292. Lamy's Apparatus Biblicus, vol. . pp. 203—206.

² On the application of these second tithes, see Michaelis's Commentaries, vol. iii. pp. 142, 143.

which it was not lawful to reap with the rest (Lev. xix. 9. Deut. xxiv. 19.); and they were likewise allowed such ears of corn, or grapes, as were dropped or scattered about, and the sheaves that might be accidentally forgotten in the field. Field-tithes might be redeemed by those who desired it, on paying one-fifth in addition : but all conversion of the tithes of cattle was prohibited. (Lev. xxvii. 32, 33.) The payment and appreciation of them Moses left to the consciences of the people, without subjecting them to judicial or sacerdotal visitations, but at the same time he did not prohibit the Levites from taking care that they duly received what was their own. The conscientious accuracy of the people, with respect to the second tithe, he secured merely by the declaration which they made every three years before God. From trifling articles he in no case required tithes ; though we learn from the Gospel that the Pharisees affected to be scrupulously exact in paying tithes of every the least herb. (Matt. xxiii. 23.) If, however, a person had committed a trespass against the sanctuary, that is, had not paid the tithes of any particular things, and if at any time afterwards, his conscience were awakened to a sense of his guilt, he had it in his power to make an atonement, without incurring any civil disgrace, by simply paying an additional fifth, with his tithe, and making a trespass-offering.¹ (Lev. v. 14—16.)

The custom of giving tithes to the Deity existed long before the time of Moses. Thus Abraham gave to Melchisedeck king of Salem (who was at the same time the priest of the Most High God), the tithe of all that he had taken from the enemy, when he returned from his expedition against the four kings who were in alliance with Chedorlaomer. (Gen. xiv. 20.) And Jacob consecrated to God the tenth of all that he should acquire in Mesopotamia. (Gen. xxviii. 22.) The same custom obtained among various antient nations, who devoted to their gods the tenth part of every thing they obtained.

¹ Michaelis's Commentaries, vol. iii. pp. 141—145.

CHAPTER IV.

SACRED TIMES AND SEASONS OBSERVED BY THE JEWS.

- I. THE SABBATH. — *How observed. — Jewish worship on that day. — Their prayers, public and private; attitudes at prayer; forms of prayer.* — II. *Their manner of worshipping in the temple.* — III. NEW MOONS. — IV. *Annual festivals.* — V. THE PASSOVER; *when celebrated, and with what ceremonies; its mystical or typical reference.* — VI. THE DAY OF PENTECOST. — VII. THE FEAST OF TABERNACLES. — VIII. THE FEAST OF TRUMPETS. — IX. DAY OF EXPIATION. — X. *Annual festivals instituted by the Jews.* — FEAST OF PURIM. — XI. THE FEAST OF DEDICATION. — *Other festivals observed at stated intervals.* — XII. THE SABBATICAL YEAR. — XIII. THE YEAR OF JUBILEE.

IN order to perpetuate the memory of the numerous wonders God had wrought in favour of his people, Moses by the divine command instituted various festivals, which they were obliged to observe: these sacred seasons were either weekly, monthly, or annual, or recurred after a certain number of years.

I. Every *seventh day* was appropriated to sacred repose, and called the SABBATH; although this name is in some passages given to other festivals, as in Levit. xxv. 4., and sometimes it denotes a week, as in Matt. xxviii. 1. Luke xxiv. 1. Acts xx. 7. and 1 Cor. xvi. 2. (Gr.) It was originally instituted to preserve the memory of the creation of the world (Gen. ii. 3.); whether it continued to be observed by the Israelites as a day of rest and holy convocation during their residence in Egypt, is a question concerning which learned men are by no means agreed. When, however, God gave them rest in the land of Canaan, he gave them his sabbaths to be stately kept. (Exod. xx. 10, 11. and xvi. 23.)

In the observance of the sabbath, the following circumstances were enjoined by divine command. 1. This day was to be held sacred as a day of worship, in memory of the creation of the world by Jehovah, and also as a day of repose both for man and beast, that they might be refreshed, and not have their bodily strength exhausted by uninterrupted labour. (Gen. ii. 1—3. Exod. xx. 10, 11. Ezek. xx. 20.); hence the celebration of the sabbath was the making of a weekly profession that they received and revered the Creator of heaven and earth, and was closely connected with the fundamental principle of the Mosaic law, whose object was to keep the people from idolatry, and to maintain the worship of the one true God; and hence also the punishment of death was denounced against the wilful profanation of this solemnity. 2. On this day they were most religiously to abstain from all manner of work. (Exod. xx. 10, xxiii. 12. xxxi. 12—17. xxxv. 2. Deut. v. 14, 15.

Jer. xvii. 22.) It was therefore unlawful to gather manna. (Exod. xvi. 22—30.), to light a fire for culinary purposes (Exod. xxxv. 3. Numb. xv. 32—36.), and to sow or reap. (Exod. xxxiv. 21.) To these enactments the Jewish doctors added a variety of other regulations, for which there is not the slightest foundation in the law of Moses. Thus, it was formerly accounted unlawful to repel force by force on the sabbath-day¹; and how much its observance was strained by the traditions of the elders in the time of our Lord, is sufficiently manifest. Hence, we find it was deemed unlawful to pluck ears of corn (Matt. xii. 2.) to satisfy the cravings of nature, because that was a species of reaping. We learn from the talmudical writers that it was unlawful to use oil medicinally, though they allowed it as a luxury; the anointing of the body with fragrant oils being then, as it is now, in the East, one of their highest enjoyments. It was a traditional rule of the antient Jewish doctors that “whatever could possibly be done on the day before, or might be deferred until the following day, ought not to drive out the sabbath;” an excellent maxim when rightly understood, but when applied to cases of infirmity or sickness, they manifestly showed that they did not comprehend the meaning of the divine declaration—*I will have mercy and not sacrifice*. In *chronical diseases*, therefore, of which description were those cured by Jesus Christ on the sabbath day, they conceived that the persons who had so long struggled with them might very well bear them a day longer, rather than prepare medicines or in any way attempt to be cured on that day. The knowledge of this circumstance will greatly illustrate the conduct of our Lord in healing the sick on the sabbath day, and particularly the man who had been born blind. (John ix.) The rule above stated was made before he began to teach, and he gladly availed himself of the first opportunity to refute their erroneous notions, and expose their gross prevarication in interpreting many of the sabbatical laws. Further, seeing it was prohibited to put fasting spittle upon or into the eyes of a blind man on the sabbath day, our Saviour effected a cure by using both clay and spittle (John ix. 6. 14), to shew his divine authority, in employing means to human reason the most improper, even on that sacred day, directly in opposition to the above rule; which was good and just in itself, but hypocritical, superstitious, and cruel, when applied to the case of healing on the sabbath. The services of the temple, however, might be performed without profaning the sabbath, such as preparing the sacrifices (Lev. vi. 8—13. Numb. xxviii. 3—10. Matt. xii. 5); and it was also lawful to perform circumcision on that day. (John vii. 23.) 3. The sabbath was to be devoted to cheerful rest,

¹ 1 Macc. ii. 31—38. See other examples in Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xii. c. vi. § 2. De Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. 16. § 4. lib. iv. c. 2. § 3. and de vitâ suâ, § 32.

² Dr. Wotton's Misna, title Shabbath, pp. 104—102. 123. The sabbath, we may observe, was a type of that eternal rest, which all the true servants of God will hereafter enjoy in heaven. See Jones's Lectures on the Epistle to the Hebrews, Lect. ii. (Works, vol. iii. pp. 240—242.)

that not only the Israelites, but also strangers living with them, as well as their cattle, might be refreshed. (Exod. xxiii. 12.) Hence, it is not improbable, that they celebrated sacrificial or offering feasts, to which, from the commencement of their polity, the poor were invited. In later times, at least, we know from history, that the Jews purchased and prepared the best viands they could procure for the sabbath day, in order to do it honour; and that they actually had sabbath feasts, to which they even invited persons with whom they were unacquainted.¹

The sabbath commenced at sun-set, and closed at the same time on the following day. (Matt. viii. 16. Mark i. 32.) Whatever was necessary was prepared on the latter part of the preceding day, that is, of our Friday: hence, the day preceding the sabbath (*προσαββατον*) is in the New Testament termed the *preparation* (*παρασκευη*), in Matt. xxvii. 62. Mark xv. 42. Luke xxiii. 54. and John xix. 14. 31. 42.

We know not with certainty from the Mosaic writings what constituted the most antient worship of the Israelites on the sabbath day. It is, however, evident from the New Testament, that the celebration of this day chiefly consisted in the religious exercises which were then performed: though there is no injunction recorded, except that a burnt-offering of two lambs should on that day be added to the morning and evening sacrifices (Numb. xxviii. 9.); and that the shew bread should be changed. (Lev. xxiv. 8.) In the synagogues, as we have already seen, the sacred writings were read and expounded, to which was sometimes added a discourse or sermon by some doctor or eminent teacher. (Luke iv. 16. Acts xiii. 15.)

Prayer also appears to have formed a part of their sacred worship in the synagogue, and especially in the temple (1 Sam. i. 9, 10. 1 Kings viii. 29, 30. 33. Psal. xxviii. 2. Luke xviii. 10.); the stated hours were at the time of offering the morning and evening sacrifice, or at the third and ninth hours (Acts ii. 15. and iii. 1.); although it was the custom of the more devout Jews, as David (Psal. lv. 17.) and Daniel (vi. 10.), to pray three times a day. Peter *went up on the house-top to pray*. (Acts x. 9.) A similar usage obtains among the Hindoos to this day.² Previously to offering up their supplications they washed their hands, to signify that they had put away sin and purposed to live a holy life. The *public* prayers were first offered at the tabernacle, and afterwards in the temple and synagogues, by the minister appointed for that purpose, the people answering (*in the synagogues only*) at the conclusion with a loud

¹ Luke xiv. 1. and Lightfoot's *Horæ Hebraicæ* on that passage. (Works, vol. ii. pp. 445, 446.) See also Wetstein's Notes, vol. i. p. 750. Michaelis remarks that our Saviour's observation in Luke xiv. 12—14. can only be fully understood in reference to a feast that formed a part of divine worship, and, as such, might look for a recompence from God: *For we do not in ordinary cases expect that God should reward us in another world for the entertainment we give.* Commentaries, vol. iii. p. 138.

² Ward's *History, &c. of the Hindoos*, vol. ii. p. 342.

Amen.¹ (Neh. viii. 6.) *Private* prayers were offered by individuals in a *low tone of voice* with the head covered²; either *standing or kneeling*, sometimes *bowing the head* towards the earth, and at others, with the whole body prostrate on the ground. Sometimes they *smote upon the breast*, in token of their deep humiliation and penitence, or spread forth their hands, or lifted them up to heaven. Of these various postures in prayer many instances occur in the sacred writers. Thus Hannah, in her affliction, *spoke in her heart; her lips only moved, but HER VOICE WAS NOT HEARD* (1 Sam. i. 13.); and the proud *Pharisee STOOD³ and prayed with (within) himself*. (Luke xviii. 11.) David says, I *STRETCH FORTH MY HANDS unto thee*. (Psal. cxliii. 6.) Solomon *KNEELED down upon his knees before all the congregation of Israel, and SPREAD FORTH HIS HANDS towards heaven*. (2 Chron. vi. 13.) Ezra *fell upon his KNEES, and SPREAD out his HANDS to the Lord his God*. (Ezra ix. 5.) Our adorable Redeemer, in his agony in the Garden of Gethsemane, *fell on his face* (prostrated himself to the ground), *KNEELED down and prayed* (Matt. xxvi. 39. Luke xxii. 41.); and the proto-martyr Stephen *KNEELED down and prayed* for his murderers. (Acts vii. 60.) Moses, when interceding for the ungrateful Israelites *BOWED HIS HEAD to the earth and worshipped*. (Exod. xxxiv. 8. Compare also Exod. ix. 29.) The humble and contrite *publican, standing afar off, SMOTE ON HIS BREAST*, and supplicated divine mercy. (Luke xviii. 13.) The prophet Isaiah, when reproving the hypocritical Jews, denounces that Jehovah would *hide his eyes* from them when they *SPREAD FORTH their hands* (Isa. i. 15.); and the *LIFTING UP OF THE HANDS* to heaven, in prayer, is expressly noted by the psalmist (cxli. 2.) and by the prophet Jeremiah. (Lam. iii. 41.)

Similar postures were adopted by most of the heathen nations that pretended to any kind of worship, when approaching the objects of their adoration; which it is highly probable that they borrowed from the people of God. *Kneeling* was ever considered to be the proper posture of supplication, as it expressed *humility, contrition, and subjection*. If the person to whom the supplication was addressed, was within reach, the supplicant caught him by the knees; for as, among the ancients, the *forehead* was consecrated to *genius*, the *ear* to *memory*, and the *right-hand* to *faith*, so the knees were

¹ The Jews attribute a wonderful efficacy to this word; and have an idle tradition that the gates of Paradise will be open to him who says Amen with all his might.

² The reason of this custom was to profess themselves reverent and ashamed before God, and unworthy to appear before him. It was a maxim of the Jews — “Let not the wise men, nor the scholars of the wise men, pray, unless they be covered.” It appears that the Corinthians, though converted to the Christian faith, in this respect conformed to the Jewish practice; and therefore St. Paul remonstrated against it. 1 Cor. xi. 4. Lightfoot's Hor. Heb. in loc. (Works, ii. 763, 770.)

³ The practice of *standing* during prayer obtained among the Arabs in the time of Mohammed, who, in his Koran, repeatedly commands his followers to *stand when they pray*. C. B. Michaelis de ritualibus S. S. ex Alcorano illustrandis, § XIV. in vol. ii. pp. 108, 109. of Pott's and Ruperti's Sylloge Commentationum Theologicarum. See also Dr. Richardson's Travels along the Shores of the Mediterranean, vol. i. p. 463. et seq.

consecrated to *mercy*. Hence those who entreated favour, fell at and caught hold of the knees of the person whose kindness they supplicated. This mode of supplication is particularly referred to in the following passages in HOMER :

Των νυν μιν μνησασα παρεζεο, και λαβε γουνων. Iliad I. 407.

Now therefore, of these things reminding Jove,
Embrace his knees. COWPER.

To which the following answer is made :

Και τοτ' επειτα τοι ειμι Διος ποτι χαλκοβατες δω,
Και μιν γοννασομαι, και μιν πεισεσθαι οϊω. Iliad I. 426, 427.

Then will I to Jove's brazen-floored abode,
That I may clasp his knees ; and much misdeem
Of my endeavour, or my pray'r shall speed. COWPER.

In the same manner we find our Lord accosted, Matt. xvii. 14. *There came to him a certain man, kneeling down to him, γονυπετων αυτον falling down at his knees.*

As to the *lifting up*, or *stretching out*, the hands (often joined to kneeling) of which we have seen already several instances, and of which we have a very remarkable one in Exod. chap. xvii. 11. where the *lifting up*, or *stretching out* of the hands of Moses was the means of Israel's prevailing over Amalek ; we find many examples of both in antient authors. Thus VIRGIL,

Corripio è stratis corpus, TENDOQUE SUPINAS
AD CÆLUM cum voce MANUS, et munera libo. Æneid iii. 176, 177.

I started from my bed, and raised on high
My hands and voice in rapture to the sky ;
And pour libations. PITT.

Dixerat : et GENUA AMPLEXUS, genibusque volutans
Hærebat. Ibid. 607, 608.

Then kneeled the wretch, and suppliant clung around
My knees, with tears, and grovelled on the ground. Id.

media inter numina dicunt,
Multa Jovem MANIBUS SUPPLEX ORASSE SUPINIS. Ibid. iv. 204, 205.

Amidst the statues of the gods he stands,
And spreading forth to Jove, his lifted hands — Id.

Et DUPLICES cum voce MANUS ad sidera TENDIT.
And lifted both his hands and voice to heaven. Ibid. x. 667.

In some cases, the person petitioning came forward, and either sat in the dust or kneeled on the ground, placing his *left hand on the knee* of him, from whom he expected the favour, while he *touchèd the person's chin with his right*. We have an instance of this also in HOMER :

Και βα παροιθ' αυτριο καδεζετο, και λαβε γουνων
Σκαιη· δεξιτερη δ' απ' υπ' ανδρεωνος ελουσα. Iliad I. 500, 501.

Suppliant the goddess stood : *one hand she plac'd
Beneath his chin, and one his knee embrac'd.*

POPE.

When the suppliant could not approach the person to whom he prayed, as where a *deity* was the object of the prayer, he washed his hands, made an offering, and kneeling down, either *stretched out both his hands to heaven*, or *laid them upon the offering or sacrifice*, or *upon the altar*. Thus HOMER represents the priest of Apollo praying :

Χερνιψαντο δ' επειτα, και ουλοχυτας ανελοντο.
Τοισιν δε Χρυσης μεγαλ' ευχετο, χειρας ανασχων.

Iliad I. ver. 449, 450.

With *water* purify their hands, and take
The sacred off'ring of the salted cake,
While thus with arms devoutly rais'd in air,
And solemn voice, the priest directs his pray'r.

POPE.¹

The practice of standing with their hands spread out towards heaven, was adopted by the primitive Christians when offering their supplications: they stood up, says Tertullian, and directed their eyes towards heaven with expanded hands.² A similar testimony is given by Clement of Alexandria³: “We lift up our head and elevate our hands towards heaven.” So also, Saint Paul, when exhorting Christians to pray for all classes of persons, describes the gesture then used in prayer (1 Tim. ii. 8.)—*Wherefore LIFT UP holy HANDS without wrath or doubting*. Those who affected superior sanctity, or who from motives of ostentation and hypocrisy, it appears, prayed in the streets⁴, and *made long prayers*, were severely censured by our Lord for their formal and hypocritical devotion. (Matt. vi. 5. and xxiii. 14.) When at a distance from the temple, the more devout Jews turned themselves towards it when they prayed. We have an instance of this in the conduct of Daniel.⁵ (Dan. vi. 10.) When the orientals pray seriously, in a state of grief, they hide their faces in their bosom. To this circumstance, the Psalmist alludes (xxxv. 13.), when he says, *My prayer returned into mine own bosom*.⁶

What the stated public prayers were in the time of our Lord it is now impossible exactly to ascertain; it is probable that many of the eighteen prayers, which are said to have been collected together by Rabbi Gamaliel the Elder, the master of St. Paul, were then in use;

¹ Dr. A. Clarke on Exod. ix. 29.

² Apolog. c. 30. p. 30. edit. Rigaltii.

³ Stromata, lib. ii. p. 722. The practice of extending the hands in prayer still obtains in the East. See Harmer's Observations, vol. ii. pp. 511—513. Fragments supplementary to Calmet, No. cclxxviii.

⁴ This practice is also general throughout the East. Both Hindoos and Musulmauns offer their devotions in the most public places; as, at the landing places of rivers, in the public streets, and on the roofs of boats, without the least modesty or effort at concealment. Ward's History of the Hindoos, vol. ii. p. 335. See also Fragments, No. cv., and Lightfoot's Horæ Hebraicæ on Matt. vi. 5. (Works, ii. 156.)

⁵ Lamy is of opinion that Hezekiah did so, and that we are to understand his *turning his face to the wall* (2 Kings xx. 2.) of his turning towards the temple. De Tabernaculo, lib. vii. c. 1. § 5.

⁶ Burder's Oriental Literature, vol. ii. p. 20.

and as all persons were not able to commit them to memory, it is also probable that a summary of them was drawn up. But we know certainly that it was customary for the more eminent doctors of the Jews to compose forms of short prayers, which they delivered to their scholars. Thus John the Baptist gave his disciples such a form: and Jesus Christ, at the request of his disciples, gave them that most perfect model emphatically termed *the Lord's Prayer*, which the very learned Mr. Gregory has shewn that he collected out of the Jewish euchologies: he has translated the whole form from them as follows:—

“Our Father, which art in heaven, be gracious unto us! O Lord our God, hallowed be thy name, and let the remembrance of thee be glorified in heaven above, and upon earth here below. Let thy kingdom reign over us, now and for ever. The holy men of old said, remit and forgive unto all men whatsoever they have done against me. And lead us not into temptation, but deliver us from the evil thing. For thine is the kingdom, and thou shalt reign in glory for ever, and for evermore.”¹

II. With what reverence the Jews regarded their temple, we have already seen²: and in proportion to the sanctity of the place was the solemn and holy behaviour required of all who came to worship there. The law, indeed, had prohibited the approach of all uncleanness; but to the enactments of Moses the great masters of traditions added a variety of other trifling regulations, which the law had not named, while they scrupled not to make the “house of prayer,” a den of thieves. Dr. Lightfoot has collected many of these traditions respecting the temple worship; an abridgment of which will form a proper supplement to the preceding observations.

1. No man might enter the “mountain of the house,” for so they called the temple, with his staff; weapons of offence being unsuited to the house of peace; and it being reputed indecorous to lean, when there, on any other staff than God. On this account it was, that our Lord expelled the buyers and sellers of cattle from the temple, with a whip of cords. (John ii. 15.)—2. No man was permitted to enter with shoes on his feet³; nor with dust on his feet, which he was obliged to wipe or wash (thus intimating the necessity of approaching the Most High divested of all worldly cares and afflictions); nor with money in his purse, nor with his purse about him.—3. Having arrived at the temple, every worshipper was prohibited from spitting there, as well as from using any irreverent gestures, or making it a

¹ See the Works of the Rev. and learned Mr. John Gregorie, p. 168. London, 1683. See also Dr. Lightfoot's *Hor. Heb.* on Matt. vi. 9—13. Drusius, in *Critici Sacri*, vol. vi. col. 259, 260. Whitly, and other commentators, in loc. Dr. Hales has an excellent commentary on this prayer, in his *Analysis of Chronology*, vol. ii. book ii. pp. 1005—1011. The forms, &c. of prayer of the modern Jews are described by Mr. Allen. *Modern Judaism*, pp. 326—354.

² See pp. 232, 233. *supra*.

³ This prohibition was derived from the command of God to Moses (Exod. iii. 5.), and

thoroughfare to shorten his distance in crossing from one part of the city to another: and on entering the court, he must walk leisurely and gravely to his place, and there demean himself as in the presence of God.—4. Having now entered to pray and attend the service, he was to stand with his feet one even with the other; and, casting his eyes downward, while he raised his heart upward, must cross his hands upon his breast, and stand as a servant before his master with all reverence and fear. The practice of looking down in prayer the Jews derived from those passages of Scripture, which speak of being ashamed to look up towards heaven, on account of their sinfulness: to this position of looking down and laying his hands upon his heart, the demeanour of the devout publican (Luke xviii. 13.) seems to be parallel. Even the priests when they pronounced the blessing upon the people, neither looked up towards heaven, nor level upon the people, but down upon the ground; and the people were prohibited from looking upon them.—5. However weary the worshipper might be with standing, he might on no account sit down either in the Israelites' or priests' court; no person whatever being allowed that privilege, except the kings of the house of David.—6. Having offered their prayers in the manner already noticed¹, and performed the services, they were to depart in the same order in which they had entered; and as they were prohibited to turn their backs upon the altar, they went backward till they were out of the court, and departed from the temple by a different gate from that by which they had entered.²

III. The Jewish months being lunar were originally calculated from the first appearance of the moon, on which the *Feast of the New-Moon*, or beginning of months (as the Hebrews termed it) was celebrated. (Exod. xii. 2. Numb. x. 10. xxviii. 11. Isa. i. 13, 14.) It seems to have been in use long before the time of Moses, who by the divine command prescribed what ceremonies were then to be observed. It was proclaimed with the sound of trumpets (Numb. x. 10. Psal. lxxxi. 3.): and several additional sacrifices were offered. (Numb. xxviii. 11—15.)

IV. Besides the sabbath, Moses instituted other festivals: three of these, viz. the passover, the feast of pentecost, and the feast of tabernacles, which are usually denominated the *Great Festivals*, were distinguished from the sabbath, and indeed from all other holy days, by the circumstance of each of them lasting seven (one for eight) successive days: during which the Jews were bound to rejoice before the Lord for all their deliverances and mercies. (Deut. xvi. 11—15.) All the males of the twelve tribes were bound to be present at these grand festivals (Exod. xxxiv. 23. Deut. xvi. 16.); and for their encouragement to attend they were assured that *no man should desire their land* during their absence (Exod. xxxiv. 24.); in other words, that they should be secure from hostile invasion during their

¹ See pp. 292—295, *supra*.

² Lightfoot's Works, vol. II. pp. 947—950.

attendance on religious worship:—a manifest proof this of the divine origin of their religion, as well as of the power and particular providence of God, in working thrice every year an especial miracle for the protection of his people. The design of these meetings was partly to unite the Jews among themselves, and, teaching them to regard each other as brethren and fellow-citizens, to promote mutual love and friendship. To this the Psalmist probably refers in Psal. cxxii. 3, 4.; and it was partly that, as one church, they might make one congregation, and join in solemn worship together. Further, so large a concourse of people would give the greater solemnity to these festivals: and as no Israelite was to present himself before the Lord without some offering (Deut. xvi. 16, 17.), ample provision was thus made for the support of the ministers of the sanctuary. On these occasions, although the men were required to attend, it does not appear that women were prevented from going if they chose, at least to the passover. (See 1 Sam. i. 3. 7. Luke ii. 41.) For greater security, however, against the attacks of robbers on the road, they used to travel in large companies, those who came from the same city, canton, or district forming one company. They carried necessities along with them, and tents for their lodging at night.¹ It was among such a “company” that Joseph and Mary sought Jesus Christ (Luke ii. 44.): and to their journeying through a dreary valley on one of these festivals, the Psalmist probably alludes. (lxxxiv. 6.) Further, as the Jewish sanctuary and service contained in them a shadow of good things to come, and were typical of the Christian church, this prescribed concourse from all parts of the country might be intended to typify the gathering of the people to Christ and into his church, from all parts of the world under the Christian dispensation. Hence St. Paul, alluding to these general assemblies of the Israelites on the three grand feasts, says “We are come to the *general assembly* of the church.” (Heb. xii. 23.)

But besides the benefits to be derived from the religious celebration of these ordinances, Michaelis has pointed out several instances in which they produced a salutary effect on the community. Not only would their meeting together in one place for the purposes of religion and social intercourse tend to prevent a total alienation of rival tribes, as well as civil war, but it would also afford them an opportunity of being mutually reconciled. Further, it is not improbable that these annual meetings promoted the internal commerce of the Israelites, who were prohibited from carrying on traffic with

¹ Nearly similar to this is the mode of travelling in the East to this hour. Such companies they now call caravans; and in many places there are buildings fitted up for their reception, called *caravanserais*. This account of the Israelites' mode of travelling furnishes a ready answer to the question, how Joseph and Mary could make a day's journey without discovering, before night, that Jesus was not in the “company.” In the day-time, as circumstances might lead them, the travellers would probably mingle with their friends and acquaintance; but in the evening, when they were about to encamp, every one would join the family to which he belonged. As Jesus then did not appear when it was growing late, his parents first sought him, where they supposed he would most probably be, among his relations and acquaintances, and not finding him, returned to Jerusalem. Dr. Campbell's *Translation of the Gospels*, vol. ii. p. 449. note on Luke ii. 44.

foreigners; and lastly, they had an important influence on the Jewish calendar, inasmuch as the year was arranged, so that the various festivals should fall in their respective months without interfering with the labours of the field.¹

V. The first and most eminent of these festivals was the PASSOVER², instituted the night before the Israelites' departure from Egypt, for a perpetual memorial of their signal deliverance, and of the favour which God shewed them in passing over and sparing their first-born, when he slew the first-born of the Egyptians. (Exod. xii. 12—14. 29, 30—51.) This festival was also called the *feast or the days of unleavened bread* (Exod. xxiii. 15. Mark xiv. 1. Acts xii. 3.); because it was unlawful to eat any other bread during the seven days the feast lasted. The name was also by a metonymy given to the lamb that was killed on the first day of this feast (Ezra vi. 20. Matt. xxvi. 17.), whence the expressions, to *eat the passover* (Mark xiv. 12. 14.), and to *sacrifice*³ the passover. (1 Cor. v. 7.) Hence also St. Paul calls Jesus Christ our passover (ibid.), that is, our true paschal lamb. But the appellation, passover, belongs more particularly to the second day of the feast, viz. the fifteenth day of the month Nisan.⁴ It was ordained to be celebrated on the anniversary of the deliverance of the Israelites. This was an indispensable rite to be observed by every Israelite, except in particular cases enumerated in Numb. ix. 1—13., on pain of death⁵; and no uncircumcised person was allowed to partake of the passover.⁶ On this festive occasion, it was the custom at Jerusalem for the inhabitants to give the free use of their rooms and furniture to strangers at the passover. This usage will explain the circumstance of our Saviour's sending to a man to prepare for his eating the passover, who, by the relation, appears to have been a stranger to him. Further, in order to render this grand festival the more interesting, a custom was introduced in the later times of the Jewish polity, of liberating some criminal. By whom or at what time this practice originated it is now impossible accurately to determine: the most probable opinion is that it was introduced by the Romans them-

¹ Commentaries on the Law of Moses, vol. iii. pp. 182—189. Jennings's Jewish Antiquities, book i. c. iv. pp. 331, 332.

² On the true meaning of the word *passover* Archbp. Magee has a learned disquisition in vol. i. of his Discourses on the Atonement, pp. 309—321. That it was a kind of federal rite (as the Eucharist also is) between God and man, Dr. Cudworth has solidly proved in his "True Notion of the Lord's Supper," chap. vi. pp. 28—36. at the end of vol. ii. of his "Intellectual System," 4to. edit.

³ That the passover was a proper and real sacrifice, see largely proved by Archbp. Magee in the same work, vol. i. p. 297—309.

⁴ Lev. xxiii. 6. Mark xiv. 1. Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. iii. c. x. § 5.

⁵ In like manner, Dr. Waterland has observed, a contempt and rejection of at least the thing signified by the sacrament of the Lord's supper, must necessarily exclude every man from the benefits of Christ's passion and death.

⁶ So, in the early ages of Christianity, no person was permitted to come to the Lord's supper until he had been baptised. As soon, however, as the passover was celebrated, every one was at liberty to go home the very next morning if he pleased (Deut. xvi. 7.), of course while the festival lasted, in order that those Jews, who came from a distance, might return in time for getting in the harvest. Michaelis's Commentaries, vol. iii. pp. 183, 184.

selves, perhaps by Pilate at the commencement of his procuratorship of Judæa, with the permission of Augustus, in order to gratify the Jews by shewing them this public mark of respect.¹ However this may be, it had become an established custom from which Pilate could not deviate (Matt. xxvii. 15. Luke xxiii. 17. John xviii. 39.), and therefore he reluctantly liberated the malefactor Barabbas.

As the very interesting history of this most solemn of all the Jewish festivals is copiously related in the twelfth chapter of Exodus, it is unnecessary to detail it again in this place: but as various traditional observances were in after times added to the Mosaic precepts concerning this sacrifice, to which there are manifest allusions in the New Testament, we shall trace them, as briefly as the important nature of the subject will admit, under the following heads:—1. The time when it was to be kept;—2. The ceremonies with which it was to be celebrated;—3. The mystical signification of these rites.

1. *Of the time when the passover was to be kept.* This festival commenced on the evening subsequent to the fourteenth day of the month Nisan, the first in the Jewish sacred or ecclesiastical year (Exod. xii. 6. 8. 18. Levit. xxiii. 4—8. Numb. xxviii. 16—27.), with eating what was called the paschal lamb; and it was to continue seven whole days, that is, until the twenty-first. The day preceding its commencement was called the *preparation of the passover*. (John xix. 14.) During its continuance no leavened bread was allowed to be used; hence the fourteenth day of the month Nisan might with great propriety be called (as we find it is in Matt. xxvi. 17. Mark xiv. 12.) the first day of unleavened bread, because the passover began in the evening. The *fifteenth* day however might also be called the first day of unleavened bread²: since, according to the Hebrew computation of time, the evening of the fourteenth was the dawn or beginning of the fifteenth, on which day the Jews began to eat unleavened bread. (Exod. xii. 18.) But, if any persons were prevented from arriving at Jerusalem in time for the feast, either by any uncleanness contracted by touching a dead body, or by the length of the journey, he was allowed to defer his celebration of the passover until the fourteenth day of the following month, in the evening. (Numb. ix. 10—12.) As it is not improbable that some difference or mistake might arise in determining the new moon, so often as such difference recurred, there would consequently be some discrepancy as to the precise time of commencing the passover.

¹ Hottinger has discussed the various opinions on the origin of this usage in a dissertation *De ritu dimittendi reum in festo Paschatis*, Tempe Helvetiæ, vol. iv. p. 264. From the Jews the custom proceeded to the Christians; Valentinian and several other emperors having issued their edict, that some prisoners should be liberated from their bonds at the annual commemoration of our Saviour's resurrection. This custom obtained among the Venetians till the close of the last century; but whether it is still observed, we have not been able to ascertain.

² The fifteenth day is so called in Levit. xxiii. 6. and by Josephus, who expressly terms the *seventh* day of unleavened bread the fifteenth day of the month. Ant. Jud. lib. iii.

Such a discordance might easily arise between the rival and hostile sects of Pharisees and Sadducees: and such a difference, it has been conjectured, did exist at the time Jesus Christ celebrated the passover with his disciples, one whole day before the Pharisees offered their paschal sacrifice.¹ Sacrifices peculiar to this festival were to be offered every day during its continuance: but the first and last days (the fifteenth and twenty-first) were to be sanctified above all the rest, by abstaining from servile labour, and holding a sacred convocation. (Exod. xii. 16. Levit. xxiii. 7, 8.)

2. *Of the ceremonies with which the passover was to be celebrated.*—The paschal lamb was to be a male, without blemish, of the first year, either from the sheep or the goats² (Exod. xii. 5.); it was to be taken from the flocks four days before it was killed; and one lamb was to be offered for each family; and if its members were too few to eat a whole lamb, two families were to join together. In the time of Josephus a paschal society consisted at least of ten persons to one lamb, and not more than twenty.³ Our Saviour's society was composed of himself and the twelve disciples. (Matt. xxvi. 20. Luke xxii. 14.) Next followed the killing of the passover; before the exode of the Israelites from Egypt, this was done in their private dwellings, but after their settlement in Canaan, it was ordered to be performed "in the place which the Lord should choose to place his name there." (Deut. xvi. 2.) This appears to have been at first wherever the ark was deposited, and ultimately at Jerusalem in the courts of the temple.⁴ Every particular person (or rather a delegate from every paschal society⁵) slew his own victim: according to Josephus, between the *ninth* hour, or *three* in the afternoon, and the *eleventh*, that is, about sun-set: and within that space of time it was, that Jesus Christ, our true paschal lamb, was crucified. (Matt. xxvii. 46.) The victim being killed, one of the priests received the blood into a vessel, which was handed from one priest to another, until it came to him who stood next the altar, and by whom it was sprinkled at the bottom of the altar. After the blood was sprinkled, the lamb was hung up and flayed; this being done, the victim was opened, the fat was taken out and consumed

¹ That a difference did exist as to the time of beginning the passover is intimated in John xiii. 1, 2. xviii. 28. and xix. 14. 31. The conjecture above noticed was made by Schulze (Archæol. Hebr. p. 319.); and if it could be substantiated, would reconcile the seeming differences occurring in the evangelists respecting the time when Christ actually celebrated the passover. Dr. A. Clarke has collected the principal opinions on this much contested point, in his discourse on the Eucharist, pp. 5—24. See also Jennings's Jewish Antiquities, book iii. c. iv. pp. 336—340.

² The Hebrew word *שֶׁט* *seu*, means either a lamb or a kid: either was equally proper. The Hebrews however in general preferred a lamb. Theodoret understands the law to mean, he that has a lamb, let him offer it; but let him that has none, offer a kid.

³ De Bell. Jud. lib. vi. c. ix. § 3.

⁴ The area of the three courts of the temple, besides the rooms and other places in it, where the paschal victim might be offered, contained upwards of 435, 600 square cubits; so that there was ample room for more than 500,000 men to be in the temple at the same time. Lamy, De Tabernaculo, lib. vii. c. ix. § 4, 5.

⁵ See Lightfoot's Temple Service, ch. xii. § 5. (Works, vol. i. pp. 957—959.)

on the altar after which the owner took it to his own house. The paschal lamb was to be roasted *whole*, which (besides its typical meaning to be hereafter considered) might be ordered as a matter of convenience at the first passover, in order that their culinary utensils might be packed up ready for their departure while the lamb was roasting.

After the lamb was thus dressed, it was eaten by each family or paschal society.¹ The first passover was to be eaten standing, in the posture of travellers who, had no time to lose; and with unleavened bread and bitter herbs, and no bone of it was to be broken. (Exod. xii. 8. 11. 46.) The posture of travellers was enjoined them, both to enliven their faith in the promise of their then speedy deliverance from Egypt; and also, that they might be ready to begin their march presently after supper. They were ordered, therefore, to eat it with their loins girded; for as they were accustomed to wear long and loose garments, such as are generally used by the eastern nations to this day, it was necessary to tie them up with a girdle about their loins, when they either travelled or engaged in any laborious employment.²

Further, they were to eat the passover *with shoes on their feet*, for in those hot countries they ordinarily wore sandals, which were a sort of clogs, or went barefoot; but in travelling they used shoes, which were a kind of short boots, reaching a little way up the legs. Hence, when our Saviour sent his twelve disciples to preach in the neighbouring towns, designing to convince them by their own experience of the extraordinary care of divine providence over them, that they might not be discouraged by the length and danger of the journeys they would be called to undertake; — on this account he ordered them to make no provision for their present journey, particularly, not to take shoes on their feet, but to be shod with sandals. (Matt. x. 10. compared with Mark vi. 9.)

Again, they were to eat the passover *with staves in their hands*, such as were always used by travellers in those rocky countries, both to support them in slippery places, and defend them against assaults. (Gen. xxxii. 10.)³ Of this sort was probably Moses's rod which he had in his hand, when God sent him with a message to Pharaoh (Exod. iv. 2.), and which was afterwards used as an instrument in working so many miracles. So necessary in these countries was a staff or walking stick on a journey, that it was a usual

¹ Beausobre says that these sodalities were called *brotherhoods*, and the guests *companions* or *friends*, and that our Saviour's reproof of Judas by calling him friend or companion (Matt. xxvi. 50.) was both just and cutting, because he betrayed him after having eaten the passover with him.

² Thus when Elisha sent his servant Gehazi on a message in haste, he bade him "gird up his loins," 2 Kings iv. 29.; and when our Saviour set about washing his disciples' feet, "he took a towel and girded himself," John xiii. 4.

³ David beautifully alludes to this custom in the twenty-third Psalm; where (ver. 4.) expressing his trust in the goodness of the Almighty, to enable him to pass tranquilly through the article of death, he exclaims, *I saw, though I walk through the valley of the shadow of death, I will fear no evil, for thou art with me; thou wilt be my shield, and thou shalt make my horn to be exalted.*

thing for persons when they undertook long journeys, to take a spare staff with them, for fear one should fail. When Christ, therefore, sent his apostles on the embassy above mentioned, he ordered them not to take staves (Luke ix. 3. Mark vi. 8.), that is, only one staff or walking stick, without making provision of a spare one, as was common in long journeys.

The paschal lamb was to be eaten with unleavened bread, on pain of being cut off from Israel, or excommunicated; though some critics understand this of being put to death. The reason of this injunction was, partly to remind them of the hardships they had sustained in Egypt, unleavened being more heavy and less palatable than leavened bread; on which account it is called the bread of affliction (Deut. xvi. 3.); and partly to commemorate the speed of their deliverance or departure from thence, which was such, that they had not sufficient time to leaven their bread; it is expressly said, that their "dough was not leavened, because they were thrust out of Egypt and could not tarry (Exod. xii. 39.); and on this account it was enacted into a standing law, "Thou shalt eat unleavened bread, even the bread of affliction; for thou camest forth out of Egypt in haste." (Deut. xvi. 3.) This rite, therefore, was not only observed at the first passover, but in all succeeding ages. But from the metaphorical sense in which the term *leaven* is used¹, this prohibition is supposed to have had a moral view; and that the divine legislator's intention was, that the Israelites should cleanse their minds from malice, envy, and hypocrisy; in a word, from the leaven of Egypt. In consequence of this injunction, the Hebrews, as well as the modern Jews, have always taken particular care to search for all the leaven that might be in their houses, and to burn it.²

The passover was likewise to be eaten "with bitter herbs:" this was doubtless prescribed as a memorial of their severe bondage in Egypt, which made their lives *bitter* unto them; and possibly also to denote that the haste, in which they departed, compelled them to gather such wild herbs as most readily presented themselves. To this sauce the Jews afterwards added another, made of dates, raisins, and several ingredients beaten together to the consistence of mustard, which is called *charoseth*, and is designed to represent the clay in which their forefathers wrought while they were in bondage to the Egyptians.

It was further prescribed, that they should eat the flesh of the

¹ Lightfoot's Works, vol. i. pp. 953, 954. Allen's Modern Judaism, p. 381.

² See Matt. xvi. 6. St. Paul, writing to the Corinthians a short time before the passover, exhorts them to "cleanse out the old leaven of lewdness by casting the incestuous person out of the church"; and to keep the feast (of the Lord's Supper) not with the old leaven of sensuality and uncleanness, with which they were formerly corrupted, neither with the leaven of malice and wickedness, but with the unleavened bread of sincerity and truth. MacKnight on 1 Cor. v. 7, 8.; who observes, that it is probable from this passage that the disciples of Christ began very early to celebrate the Lord's Supper with peculiar solemnity, annually, on the day on which the Redeemer suffered, which was the day of the Jewish passover, called in modern language *Easter*. It is with beautiful propriety therefore that this passage of St. Paul is read by the Anglican church among the occasional versicles for Easter Sunday.

lamb, without breaking any of his bones. (Exod. xii. 46.) This the latter Jews understand, not of the smaller bones, but only of the greater which had marrow in them. Thus was this rite also intended to denote their being in haste, not having time to break the bones and suck out the marrow. But it had likewise a typical meaning, of which we shall have occasion to take notice hereafter.

Lastly, it was ordered that nothing of the paschal lamb should remain till the morning; but, if it were not all eaten, it was to be consumed by fire. (Exod. xii. 10.) The same law was extended to all eucharistical sacrifices (Lev. xxii. 30.); no part of which was to be left, or set by, lest it should be corrupted, or converted to any profane or common use, — an injunction which was designed no doubt to maintain the honour of sacrifices, and to teach the Jews to treat with reverence whatever was consecrated more especially to the service of God.

Such were the circumstances under which the first passover was celebrated by the Israelites; for, after they were settled in the land of Canaan, they no longer ate it standing, but the guests reclined on their left arms upon couches placed round the table. (John xiii. 23.) This posture, according to the talmudical writers, was an emblem of that rest and freedom which God had granted to the children of Israel by bringing them out of Egypt. This custom of reclining at table, over one another's bosom, was a sign of *equality* and strict union among the guests.¹

Dr. Lightfoot has collected from the Talmud a variety of passages relative to the Jewish mode of celebrating the passover; from which we have abridged the following particulars, as they are calculated materially to illustrate the evangelical history of our Lord's last passover, recorded in Matt. xxvi. Mark xiv. Luke xxii. and John xiii.

(1.) The guests being placed around the table, they mingled a cup of wine with water, over which the master of the family (or, if two or more families were united, a person deputed for the purpose) gave thanks, and then drank it off. The thanksgiving for the wine was to this effect, "*Blessed be thou, O Lord, who hast created the fruit of the vine;*" and for the day, as follows — "*Blessed be thou for this good day, and for this holy convocation, which thou hast given us for joy and rejoicing! Blessed be thou, O Lord, who hast sanctified Israel and the times!*" Of these cups of wine they drank four in the course of the ordinance.

(2.) They then washed their hands, after which the table was furnished with the paschal lamb, roasted whole, with bitter herbs, and with two cakes of unleavened bread, together with the remains of the peace-offerings sacrificed on the preceding day, and the *charoseth*, or thick sauce, above mentioned.

(3.) The officiator, or person presiding, then took a small piece

¹ This custom, Beausobre well observes, will explain several passages of Scripture, particularly those in which mention is made of Abraham's bosom (Luke xvi. 22.), and of the son's *sitting by the bosom of the father*. (John i. 18. compared with Phil. ii. 6. and John xiii. 23.)

of salad, and having blessed God for creating the fruit of the ground, he ate it, as also did the other guests: after which all the dishes were removed from the table, that the children might inquire and be instructed in the nature of the feast. (Exod. xii. 25, 26.) The text on which they generally discoursed was Deut. xxvi. 5—11. In like manner our Saviour makes use of the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, to declare the great mercy of God in our redemption; for it *shewes forth the Lord's death till he come* to judge the world. The "continual remembrance of the sacrifice of the death of Christ, and of the benefits we receive thereby," which has been observed ever since the time of the apostles, is a permanent and irrefragable argument for the reality of that "full, perfect, and sufficient sacrifice, oblation, and satisfaction for the sins of the whole world," which was made by Jesus Christ "by his one oblation of himself" upon the cross; in opposition to the opinion of those who deny the divinity of our Saviour, and the vicarious nature of his death.

(4.) Then replacing the supper, they explained the import of the bitter herbs and paschal lamb: and over the *second* cup of wine repeated the hundred and thirteenth and hundred and fourteenth psalms, with an eucharistic prayer.

(5.) The hands were again washed, accompanied by an ejaculatory prayer; after which the master of the house proceeded to break and bless a cake of the unleavened bread, which he distributed among the guests, reserving half of the cake beneath a napkin, if necessary, for the *aphicomen*, or last morsel; for the rule was, to conclude with eating a small piece of the paschal lamb, or, after the destruction of the temple, of unleavened bread. In like manner our Lord, upon instituting the sacrament of the eucharist, which was prefigured by the passover, took bread; and having blessed or given thanks to God, he brake it, and gave it to his disciples, saying *Take, eat, this is my body, which is given for you. This do in remembrance of me.* (Matt. xxvi. 26. Mark xiv. 22. Luke xxii. 19. 1 Cor. xi. 23, 24.) In the communion service of the Anglican church, the spirit and design both of the type and antitype are most expressively condensed into one point of view in the following address to the communicant:—*TAKE and EAT this in REMEMBRANCE that Christ died for THEE, and feed upon him in thy heart by faith, with thanksgiving.*

(6.) They then ate the rest of the cake with the bitter herbs, dipping the bread into the charoseth, or sauce, above mentioned. To this practice the evangelists Matthew (xxvi. 21—25.) and Mark (xiv. 18—21.) manifestly allude: and into this sauce our Saviour is supposed to have dipped the sop which he gave to Judas. (John xiii. 26.)

(7.) Next they ate the flesh of the peace-offerings which had been sacrificed on the fourteenth day, and then the flesh of the paschal lamb, which was followed by returning thanks to God, and a second washing of hands.

(8.) A third cup of wine was then filled, over which they blessed

God, or said grace after meat (whence it was called the *cup of blessing*), and drank it off. To this circumstance Saint Paul particularly alludes when he says, — *The CUP of blessing which we bless, is it not the communion of the blood of Christ.* (1 Cor. x. 16.) It was also at this part of the paschal supper that our Lord *took the cup, saying, This is the NEW TESTAMENT* (rather *covenant*) *IN MY BLOOD, which is shed for you, and for many, for the REMISSION OF SINS.* (Luke xxii. 20. Matt. xxvi. 27.) The *cup* here is put for *wine*; and *covenant* is put for the *token* or *sign* of the covenant. The *wine*, as representing Christ's *blood*, answers to the blood of the passover, which typified it; and the *remission of sins* here, answers to the passing over there, and preserving from death.¹

(9.) Lastly, a fourth cup of wine was filled, called the cup of the hallel: over it they completed, either by singing or recitation, the great hallel, or hymn of praise, consisting of psalms cxv. to cxviii. inclusive, with a prayer, and so concluded.² In like manner our Lord and his disciples, when they had sung a hymn, departed to the Mount of Olives. (Matt. xxvi. 30. Mark xiv. 26.)

3. *With regard to the mystical signification of the passover*, we know generally from Saint Paul (1 Cor. v. 7.), who calls Jesus Christ *our passover*, that this Jewish sacrament had a typical reference to him: but, concerning the points of resemblance between the type and antitype, learned men are not agreed. Godwin³ has enumerated *thirteen* points of coincidence; Dr. Lightfoot⁴, *seventeen*; and Keach⁵, *nineteen*. The most judicious view of this subject which we have seen is that of Herman Witsius⁶, who has treated it under four general heads, viz. the person of Christ, — his sufferings, — the fruits or effects of them, — and the manner in which we are made partakers of them. The following particulars are abridged from this eminent divine.

¹ Clarke on the Eucharist, p. 39. On this part of the institution of the Lord's Supper, Dr. Lightfoot has the following admirable remarks. "*This is my blood of the New Testament.* Not only the seal of the covenant, but the sanction of the new covenant. The end of the Mosaic economy, and the confirming of a new one. The confirmation of the old covenant was by the *blood of bulls and goats* (Exod. xxiv. Heb. ix.), because blood was still to be shed: the confirmation of the new was by a cup of wine; because under the new covenant there is no further shedding of blood. As it is here said of the cup, *This cup is the New Testament in my blood*; so it might be said of the *cup of blood*. (Exod. xxiv.) *That cup was the Old Testament in the blood of Christ*: there all the articles of that covenant being read over, Moses sprinkled all the people with blood, and said *This is the blood of the covenant which God hath made with you*; and thus that old covenant, or testimony, was confirmed. In like manner, Christ, having published all the articles of the new covenant, he takes *the cup of wine*, and gives them to drink, and saith, *This is the New Testament in my blood*, and thus the new covenant was established."

— (Works, vol. ii. p. 260.) Hor. Heb. on Matt. xxvi. 27.

² Lightfoot's Temple Service, c. xiii. (Works, vol. i. pp. 959—967.) See also Mr. Ainsworth's learned and interesting notes on Exod. xii. in his Annotations on the Pentateuch.

³ Godwin's Moses and Aaron, pp. 114, 115.

⁴ Lightfoot's Works, vol. i. pp. 1008, 1009.

⁵ Keach's Key to Scripture Metaphors, pp. 979, 980. 2 edit. See also M'Ewen on the Types, pp. 148—152.

⁶ Witsius, de *Oeconomia Fœderum*, lib. iv. c. 9. sections xxxv.—lviii. or vol. ii. pp. 274—281, of the English translation.

First, The person of Christ was typified by the paschal lamb. On which account, as well as in respect to the lamb of the daily sacrifice, he is often represented under the emblem of a lamb. "Behold the lamb of God," saith John the Baptist. (John i. 29. 36.) The fitness and propriety of this type, or emblem, consists partly in some natural properties belonging to a lamb, and partly in some circumstances peculiar to the paschal lamb. A lamb being, perhaps, the least subject to choler of any animal in the brute creation, was a very proper emblem of our Saviour's humility and meekness; and of his inoffensive behaviour (Matt. xi. 29.); for he, by whose precious blood we were redeemed, was "a lamb without blemish and without spot" (1 Pet. i. 19.): and likewise of his exemplary patience and submission to his father's will, under all his sufferings, and in the agony of death; for though he was *oppressed, and afflicted, yet he opened not his mouth*. (Isa. liii. 7.) By his almighty power he could have delivered himself out of the hands of his enemies, as he had done on former occasions (Luke iv. 29, 30. John viii. 59.); but behold the lion of the tribe of Judah now transformed into a lamb, by his obedience to his father's will, and compassion to the souls of men. There were also some circumstances, peculiar to the paschal lamb, which contributed to its fitness and propriety as a type and emblem of Christ; such as its being ordered to be free from all blemish and natural defect, that it might the better represent the immaculate Son of God, who was made without sin, and never did any iniquity (Heb. vii. 26.); that it was to be taken out of the flock, therein representing that divine person, who, in order to his being made a sacrifice for our sins, did first become one of us by taking our flesh and blood, and *was made in all things like to his brethren*. (Heb. ii. 14. 17.) The paschal lamb was to be a male of the first year, when the flesh was in the highest state of perfection for food; more fitly to represent *the child that was to be born, — the son that was to be given* (Isa. ix. 6.) to us, and the excellency of the sacrifice he was to offer for us, after he had lived a short life among men. Once more, the paschal lamb was to be taken out of the flock four days before it was sacrificed. This circumstance, if we understand it of such prophetic days as are mentioned in the fourth chapter of Ezekiel, is perfectly applicable to Christ, who left his mother's house and family, and engaged publicly in his office as a Saviour, **four** years before his death.

Secondly, The sufferings and death of Christ were also typified by the paschal lamb in various particulars. For instance, that lamb was to be killed "by the whole assembly of the congregation of Israel" (Exod. xii. 6.); and so the whole estate of the Jews, the priests, scribes, elders, rulers, and the populace in general, (compare Mark xiv. 43. with Luke xxiii. 13.) conspired in the death of Christ. The paschal lamb was to be killed by the effusion of its blood, as pointing out the manner of Christ's death; in which there was an effusion of blood on the cross. It was to be roasted

with fire¹, as representing its antitype enduring, on our account, the fierceness of God's anger, which is said to "burn like fire." (Psal. lxxxix. 46. Jer. iv. 4.) Hence that complaint of our suffering Saviour in the prophecy concerning him in the twenty-second psalm, "My heart is like wax, it is melted in the midst of my bowels, my strength is dried up like a potsherd, and my tongue cleaveth to my jaws." (Psal. xxii. 14, 15.) There was further, a remarkable correspondence between the type and the antitype with respect to the place and time in which each was killed as a sacrifice. The place was the same as to both, namely "the place which the Lord should choose to put his name there," which, from the reign of David was at Jerusalem; and the time was also the same, for Christ suffered his agonies on the same evening on which the passover was celebrated; and his death took place the next day, between the two evenings, according to the most probable interpretation of that phrase, namely, between noon and sunset.

Thirdly, Several of the fruits and consequences of the death of Christ were remarkably typified by the sacrifice of the paschal lamb; such as protection and salvation by his blood, of which the sprinkling of the door-posts with the blood of the lamb, and the safety which the Israelites by that means enjoyed from the plague that spread through all the families of the Egyptians, was a designed and illustrious emblem. It is in allusion to this type, that the blood of Christ is called *the blood of sprinkling*. (1 Pet. i. 2 Heb. xii. 24.) Immediately upon the Israelites eating the first passover, they were delivered from their Egyptian slavery, and restored to full liberty, of which they had been deprived for many years; and such is the fruit of the death of Christ, in a spiritual and much nobler sense, to all that believe in him; for he hath thereby "obtained eternal redemption for us," and "brought us into the glorious liberty of the children of God." (1 Heb. ix. 12. Rom. viii. 21.)

Fourthly, The manner in which we are to be made partakers of the blessed fruits of the sacrifice of Christ, were also represented by lively emblems in the passover, namely, by the sprinkling of the blood of the lamb on the door-posts, and by eating its flesh. The door-post may be understood to signify the heart of man,

¹ Justin Martyr, who flourished in the early part of the second century, in his conference with Trypho the Jew, has the following remarkable passage: "This lamb," says he, "which was to be entirely roasted, was a symbol of the punishment of the cross, which was inflicted on Christ. For the lamb which was roasted was so placed as to resemble the figure of a cross; with one spit it was pierced longitudinally, from the tail to the head; with another it was transfixured through the shoulders, so that the fore legs became extended." Vid. Just. Martyri Opera ab Oberthur, vol. ii. p. 106. "To some this may appear trifling; but it has seemed right to the wisdom of God to typify the most interesting events by emblems, of comparatively less moment. He is sovereign of his own ways, and he chooses often to confound the wisdom of the wise, not only by the foolishness of preaching, but also by the various means he employs to bring about the great purpose of his grace and justice. The manner of this roasting was certainly singular; and of the fact we cannot doubt, for Trypho himself neither attempted to dispute, nor deny it." Dr. A. Clarke's Discourse on the Eucharist, p. 32. For an account of the manner in which the modern Jews celebrate the passover, see Mr. Allen's Modern Judaism, pp. 380—385.

which is the gate or door, by which the King of glory is to enter (Psal. xxiv. 7.); and which is as manifest in the sight of God, as the very doors of our houses are to any one that passes by them. (1 Sam. xvi. 7.) The sprinkling of the blood on the door-posts may therefore signify the purifying of the heart by the grace of Christ, which he purchased for us by his blood. This seems to be the apostle's allusion in the following expression, *Having your hearts sprinkled from an evil conscience.* (Heb. x. 22.)

By eating the flesh of the lamb, we have no difficulty in understanding faith in Jesus Christ, since Christ himself has expressed saving faith in him by the metaphor of eating his flesh, probably in reference to the passover. (John vi. 53.)

It is worthy of our notice, that the lamb was to be roasted whole, and was to be all eaten, and none of it left: which may fitly signify, that, in order to our obtaining the benefits of Christ's sacrifice, we must receive him, submit to him, and trust him in all his characters and offices, as our prophet, our priest, and our king; nor are we to expect that he will redeem and save us from the wrath to come, if we will not at present have him to reign over us.

The passover was to be eaten with bitter herbs; which, besides its being an intended memorial of the afflictions of the Israelites in Egypt, may fitly signify, that repentance for sin must accompany faith in Christ; and also, that, if we are partakers of the benefits of Christ's passion, we must expect, and be content, to be in some measure partakers likewise of his sufferings. To this purpose the apostle speaks of *the fellowship of his sufferings* (Phil. iii. 10.), and elsewhere observes, *that if we suffer with him, we shall also reign with him.* (2 Tim. ii. 12.)

The passover was also to be eaten with unleavened bread; which St. Paul interprets to signify sincerity and purity of heart in opposition to malice, wickedness, and falsehood, and which must necessarily accompany faith in Christ in order to his being our passover, that is, our protection from the wrath of God, and our Redeemer from spiritual bondage and misery. (1 Cor. v. 7, 8.)

It was further ordered, that in eating the paschal lamb they should "not break a bone of it;" a circumstance in which there was a remarkable correspondence between the type and the antitype. (John xix. 33. 36.) There is evidently more fancy than judgment in that mystical interpretation, which some have put on this circumstance; who by the bones understand those secrets of God, or those hard and difficult things in the divine counsels, which we are not able to comprehend, and of which we should therefore be humbly content to be ignorant, without too curiously and anxiously searching into them; according to the advice of Moses, "Secret things belong to the Lord our God, but those which are revealed, to us and to our children for ever, that we may do all the words of this law." (Deut. xxix. 29.)

None, who were legally unclean and polluted, might eat the pass-

over; which may further hint to us that purity and holiness are necessary and incumbent on all that would partake of the benefit of Christ's sacrifice; for *what fellowship hath righteousness with unrighteousness? what communion hath light with darkness? what concord hath Christ with Belial?* (2 Cor. vi. 14, 15.)

The Israelites were to eat their first passover in the habit and posture of travellers; which, in the mystical sense, may signify, that such as enter into covenant with God through Christ, must be resolved upon, and ready to go forth to, every duty to which he may call them. They are not to consider this world as their home; but, remembering that they are travelling towards heaven, they are to bear that blessed world much upon their thoughts, and to be diligent in preparing for their entrance into it. To this purpose are we exhorted "to gird up the loins of our minds and to be sober;" to "stand, having our loins girded about with truth;" and, "as pilgrims and strangers, to abstain from fleshly lusts, which war against the soul." (Ephes. vi. 14. 1 Pet. ii. 11.) In all these expressions, there seems to be some reference to the habit and posture of the Israelites at the first passover.

They were to eat the passover in haste; and thus we must "flee for refuge to lay hold on the hope set before us" (Heb. vi. 18.): we must not delay and trifle, but "give diligence to make our calling and election sure" (2 Pet. i. 10.); for the kingdom of heaven is said to "suffer violence, and the violent take it by force." (Matt. xi. 12.)

In the last place, the Israelites were to eat the passover, each family in their own house; and none might go out of the house any more that night, lest the destroying angel should meet and kill him. By the houses may be understood the church of Christ, in which only we are to expect communion with him and salvation by him; and having entered into it, we must not go out again, lest we be condemned as apostates. (Heb. vi. 4—6. x. 39. 2 Pet. ii. 20, 21.)

On the second day of the festival (the sixteenth of the month Nisan) was offered the sheaf of the first-fruits of the barley-harvest, which was usually ripe at this season, as a grateful acknowledgment of the goodness of God, in bestowing upon them both the former and the latter rains (Jer. v. 24.), and also of His right to confer or withhold them as he pleases. It was accompanied with a particular sacrifice, the circumstances of which are detailed in Levit. xxiii. 9—14.

VI. The second of the three great Jewish festivals was the FEAST OF PENTECOST, which is called by various names in the sacred writings; as the *feast of weeks* (Exod. xxxiv. 22. Deut. xvi. 10. 16.), because it was celebrated seven weeks or a week of weeks after the first day of unleavened bread; — the *feast of harvest* (Exod. xxiii. 16.), and also the *day of first-fruits* (Numb. xxviii. 26.), because on this day the Jews offered thanksgivings to God for the bounties of harvest, and presented to him the first-fruits of the wheat-harvest,

in bread baked of the new corn. (Exod. xxiii. 16. Lev. xxiii. 14—21. Numb. xxviii. 26—31.) The form of thanksgiving for this occasion is given in Dent. xxvi. 5—10. On this day also was commemorated the giving of the law on Mount Sinai. The Greek word Pentecost, Πεντηκοστή (Acts ii. 1. xx. 16.), is derived from the circumstance of its being kept on the *fiftieth* day after the first day of unleavened bread. The number of Jews assembled at Jerusalem on this joyous occasion was very great.¹ This festival had a typical reference to the miraculous effusion of the Holy Spirit upon the apostles and first-fruits of the Christian church on the day of Pentecost (corresponding with our Whit-Sunday), on the fiftieth day after the resurrection of Jesus Christ.²

VII. THE FEAST OF TABERNACLES, like the preceding festival, continued for a week. It was instituted to commemorate the dwelling of the Israelites in tents while they wandered in the desert. (Lev. xxiii. 34. 43.) Hence it is called by St. John the *feast of tents*. (σκηνοπηγία, John vii. 2.)³ It is likewise termed the *feast of ingatherings*. (Exod. xxiii. 16. xxxiv. 22.) Further, the design of this feast was, to return thanks to God for the fruits of the vine, as well as of other trees, which were gathered about this time, and also to implore his blessing upon those of the ensuing year. The following were the principal ceremonies observed in the celebration of this feast.

1. During the whole of this solemnity they were obliged to dwell in tents, which antiently were pitched on the flat terrace-like roofs of their houses. (Neh. viii. 16.)

2. Besides the ordinary daily sacrifices, there were several extraordinary ones offered on this occasion, which are detailed in Numb. xxix.

3. During the continuance of this feast, they carried in their hands branches of palm-trees, olives, citrons, myrtles, and willows (Levit. xxiii. 40. Neh. viii. 15. 2 Macc. x. 7.)⁴; singing *Hosanna*, *save I beseech thee* (Psal. cxviii. 25.), in which words they prayed for the coming of the Messiah. These branches also bore the name of Hosannah, as well as all the days of the feast. In the same manner was Jesus Christ conducted into Jerusalem by the believing Jews, who, considering him to be the promised Messiah, expressed their boundless joy at finding in him the accomplishment of those petitions, which they had so often offered to God for his coming, at the feast of tabernacles. (Matt. xxi. 8, 9.) During its continuance, they walked in procession round the altar with the above-mentioned branches in their hands, amid the sound of trumpets, singing Ho-

¹ Acts ii. 9—11. Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. ii. c. iii. § 1.

² Schulzii Archæol. Hebr. pp. 321—323. Lamy's Apparatus Biblicus, vol. i. p. 179. Lightfoot's Works, vol. i. p. 960. Michaelis's Commentaries, vol. iii. p. 184. Relandi Antiq. Hebr. p. 472.

³ A similar appellation is given by Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xi. c. 5. § 5. lib. viii. c. 4. § 1.

⁴ Lamy adds, that the Jews tied these branches with gold and silver strings, or with ribands, and did not lay them aside the whole day; carrying them into their synagogues, and keeping them by them while they were at their prayers. App. Bib. vol. i. p. 183.

sanna; and on the last or seventh day of the feast, they compassed the altar seven times. This was called the Great Hosanna. To this last ceremony St. John probably alludes in Rev. vii. 9, 10. where he describes the saints as standing before the throne, "*clothed with white robes, and palms in their hands; and saying, Salvation to our God which sitteth upon the throne, and unto the Lamb.*"

4. One of the most remarkable ceremonies performed at this feast was the libation or pouring out of water, drawn from the fountain or pool of Siloam, upon the altar.¹ As, according to the Jews themselves, this water was an emblem of the HOLY SPIRIT, Jesus Christ manifestly alluded to it, when he "*cried, saying, If any man thirst, let him come unto me and drink.*" (John vii. 37. 39.)

No festival was celebrated with greater rejoicings than this, which Josephus calls "*a most holy and most eminent feast.*"² Dancing, music, and feasting were the accompaniments of this festival, together with such brilliant illuminations as lighted the whole city of Jerusalem. These rejoicings are supposed to have taken place in the court of the women, in order that they might be partakers of the general hilarity.³

VIII. To the three grand *annual* festivals above described, Moses added two others, which were celebrated with great solemnity, though the presence of every male Israelite was not absolutely required. The first of these was the FEAST OF TRUMPETS, and was held on the first and second days of the month Tisri, which was the commencement of the civil year of the Hebrews: this feast derived its name from the blowing of trumpets in the temple with more than usual solemnity. (Numb. xxix. 1. Levit. xxiii. 24.) On this festival they abstained from all labour (Levit. xxiii. 25.), and offered particular sacrifices to God, which are described in Numb. xxix. 1—6.

IX. The other feast above mentioned was the FAST OR FEAST OF EXPIATION, OR DAY OF ATONEMENT; which day the Jews observed as a most strict fast⁴, abstaining from all servile work, taking no food, and *afflicting their souls.* (Levit. xxiii. 27—30.) Of all the sacrifices ordained by the Mosaic law, the sacrifice of the atonement was the most solemn and important: it was offered on the tenth

¹ See p. 40. *supra*, where this ceremony is described.

² Ant. Jud. lib. viii. c. iv. § 1. The greatness of these rejoicings, and their happening at the time of vintage, led Tacitus to suppose that the Jews were accustomed to sacrifice to Bacchus. Tacitus, Hist. lib. v. c. 5. (tom. iii. p. 268. edit. Bipont.)

³ Schulzii Archaeol. Heb. pp. 323—326. Relandi Antiq. Heb. p. 477. Ikenii Antiq. Heb. pp. 134, 135. Lightfoot's Works, vol. i. p. 964. vol. ii. pp. 641—643. Leusden's Philologus Hebræo-Mixtus, p. 295. Harmer's Observations, vol. i. p. 13.

⁴ The Jewish fasts, whether public or private, were distinguished by every possible mark of grief; the people being clothed in sackcloth, with ashes strewed on their heads, downcast countenances, rent garments, and (on public occasions) with loud weeping and supplication. (2 Sam. xiii. 19. Psal. xxxv. 13. Isa. lviii. 5. Lam. ii. 10. Joel i. 13, 14. ii. 12, 13.) At these times they abstained from food until evening. The sanctimonious Pharisees (who, besides the regular seasons, fasted twice a week, Luke xviii. 12.) affected the utmost humility and devotion, disfiguring their faces and avoiding every appearance of greatness; against this conduct our Lord cautions his disciples, in Matt. vi. 16, 17. *Foot's Hor. Heb.* on that passage, and also on Matt. ix. 14., and Luke xviii. 12. Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. iii. c. x. § 3.

day of the month Tisri, by the high priest alone, for the sins of the whole nation. "On this day only, in the course of the year, was the high priest permitted to enter the sanctuary¹, and not even then without due preparation, under pain of death; all others being excluded from the tabernacle during the whole ceremony. (Levit. xvi. 2—17.) Previously to his entrance he was to wash himself in water, and to put on the holy linen garments, with the mitre; and to bring a young bullock into the outer sanctuary, and present it before the Lord to be a sin-offering for himself and his household, including the priests and Levites, and a ram also for a burnt-offering. (xvi. 3. 4.) Next, he was to take two young goats, and present them before the Lord, at the door of the tabernacle, to be a sin-offering for the whole congregation of Israel, and a ram also for a burnt-offering. (xvi. 5.) He was then to cast lots upon the two goats, which of them should be sacrificed as a sin-offering to the Lord, and which should be let go for a scape-goat into the wilderness.

"After this, he was first to sacrifice the bullock as a sin-offering for himself and his household, and to take some of the blood into the inner sanctuary, bearing in his hand a censer with incense burning, kindled at the sacred fire on the altar, and to sprinkle the blood with his finger upon the mercy-seat, and before it, seven times, to purify it from the pollution it might be supposed to have contracted from his sins and transgressions during the preceding year. He was then to sacrifice the allotted goat for the sins of the whole nation, and to enter the inner sanctuary a second time, and to sprinkle it with blood as before, to purify it from the pollution of the people's sins and transgressions of the foregoing year. After which, he was to purify, in like manner, the tabernacle and the altar. He was next to bring the live goat, and lay both his hands upon its head, and confess over him all the iniquities, transgressions, and sins of the children of Israel, putting them upon the head of the goat, and then to send him away by the hand of a fit person into the wilderness, to bear away upon him all their iniquities to a land of separation, where they should be remembered no more. After this atonement he was to put off his linen garments, and leave them in the sanctuary, and to wash himself again in water, and put on his usual garments; and then to offer burnt-offerings for himself and for the people, at the evening sacrifice. (Lev. xvi. 3—28.)

"The whole of this process seems to be typical or prefigurative of the grand atonement to be made for the sins of the whole world by Jesus Christ, *the high priest of our profession* (Heb. iii. 1.), and a remarkable analogy thereto may be traced in the course of our Lord's ministry. He began it with personal purification at his baptism, to *fulfil all legal righteousness*. (Matt. iii. 13—15.) Immediately after his baptism, he was led, by the impulse of the HOLY

¹ When the tabernacle was to be removed, and set up again, the inner sanctuary might safely be entered, but not at other times.

SPIRIT, into the wilderness, as the true scape-goat, who *bore away our infirmities, and carried off our diseases.* (Isa. liii. 4—6. Matt. viii. 17.) Immediately before his crucifixion, *he was afflicted, and his soul was exceeding sorrowful unto death*, when he was to be made a sin-offering like the allotted goat (Psal. xl. 12. Isa. liii. 7. Matt. xxvi. 38. 2 Cor. v. 21. Heb. i. 3.); and *his sweat, as great drops of blood, falling to the ground*, corresponded to the sprinkling of the mercy seat (Luke xxii. 44.); and when, to prepare for the sacrifice of himself, he consecrated himself in prayer to God (John xvii. 1—5. Matt. xxvi. 39—46.); and then prayed for his household, his apostles, and disciples (John xvii. 6—9.), and for all future believers on him by their preaching. (John xvii. 20—26.) He put off his garments at his crucifixion, when he became the sin-offering (Psal. xxii. 18. John xix. 23, 24.); and, as our spiritual high priest, entered once for all into the most holy place, heaven, to make intercession with God for all his faithful followers. (Heb. vii. 24—28. ix. 7—15.) *Who died for our sins, and rose again for our justification.”*¹ (Rom. iv. 25.)

X. Besides the annual festivals above described, the Jews in later times introduced several fast and feast days in addition to those instituted by Moses. The two principal festivals of this kind were the feast of purim, and that of the dedication of the second temple.

THE FEAST OF PURIM, or of *Lots*, as the word signifies, is celebrated on the fourteenth and fifteenth days of the month of Adar (or of Ve-Adar if it be an intercalary year), in commemoration of the providential deliverance of the Jews from the cruel machinations of Haman, who had procured an edict from Artaxerxes to extirpate them. (Esth. iii.—ix.) On this occasion the entire book of Esther is read in the synagogues of the modern Jews, not out of a printed copy, but from a roll which generally contains this book alone. All Jews, of both sexes, and of every age, who are able to attend, are required to come to this feast, and to join in the reading, for the better preservation of the memory of this important fact. When the roll is unfolded, the chazan or reader says, “Blessed be God, the King of the world, who hath sanctified us by his precepts, and commanded us to read the Megillah! Blessed be God, who in those days worked miracles for our fathers!” As often as the name of Haman occurs, the whole congregation clap their hands, stamp with their feet, and exclaim, “Let his name be blotted out! May the memory of the wicked rot!” The children at the same time hiss, and strike loudly on the forms with little wooden hammers made for the purpose. When the reader comes to the seventh, eighth, and ninth chapters, where the names of Haman’s ten sons occur, he pronounces them with great rapidity, and in one breath, to intimate

¹ Dr. Hales’s Analysis, vol. ii. book 1. pp. 274. 276. See also Jennings’s Jewish Antiquities, book iii. ch. viii. pp. 276—288. Lightfoot’s Works, vol. i. pp. 961, 962. Relandi Antiq. Hebr. p. 491. *et seq.* Schulzii Archæol. Hebr. pp. 328—334. The typical reference of the sacrifice offered on this day is discussed at considerable length by Witsius, De Econ. Heb. iv. c. vi. or vol. ii. pp. 213—231. of the English translation. On the manner in which this fast is observed by the modern Jews, see Allen’s Modern Judaism, pp. 391—392.

that they were all hanged, and expired in the same moment. In most manuscripts and editions of the book of Esther, the ten names contained in the chapters just mentioned are written under each other in ten lines, no other word being connected with them, in order to exhibit the manner in which they were hanged, viz. on a pole fifty cubits, that is, seventy-five feet high; each of the brothers being immediately suspended, the one under the other, in one perpendicular line.

When the chazen has finished the reading, the whole congregation exclaim — “Cursed be Haman! — Blessed be Mordecai! Cursed be Zeresh! — Blessed be Esther! Cursed be all idolaters! — Blessed be all the Israelites! And blessed likewise be Harbonah, at whose instance Haman was hanged!” In order to heighten the general joy on this festival, Buxtorf relates that some Jews wore party-coloured garments, and young foxes’ tails in their hats, and ran about the synagogue exciting the congregation to laughter! Further, to excite and increase mirth, the men and women exchange apparel; this, though positively forbidden by the law, they consider innocent, and allowable on this festive occasion, which is a season of peculiar gaiety. Alms are given to the poor; relations and friends send presents to each other; and all furnish their tables with every luxury they can command. These two days are the bacchanalia of the modern Jews; who think it no sin to indulge themselves largely in their cups, some of them indeed to intoxication, in memory of Esther’s banquet of wine; at which she succeeded in defeating the sanguinary designs of Haman.¹

XI. THE FEAST OF DEDICATION (mentioned in John x. 22.) was instituted by Judas Maccabeus, in imitation of those by Solomon and Ezra, as a grateful memorial of the cleansing of the second temple and altar, after they had been profaned by Antiochus Epiphanes. (1 Macc. iv. 52—59.) It commenced on the twenty-fifth of the month Cisleu, corresponding with our December, and lasted eight days. This festival was also called the *feast of lights*, because the Jews illuminated their houses in testimony of their joy and gladness on this very important occasion.² The whole of this feast was spent in singing hymns, offering sacrifices, and every kind of diversion³: it was celebrated with much solemnity in the time of Josephus.

Besides these two festivals, we find several others incidentally mentioned in the Old Testament, as being observed by the Jews in later ages, though not appointed by Moses. Such are the fast of the fourth month, on account of the taking of Jerusalem by the Chaldeans (Jer. iii. 6, 7.) the fast of the fifth month, on account of their burning the temple and city (2 Kings xxv. 8.); and that

¹ Buxtorf de Synagog. Jud. cap. xxix. Iken. Antiq. Hebr. pp. 336—338. Schulzii Archæol. Hebr. pp. 334, 335. Allen’s Modern Judaism, p. 405. Dr. Clarke’s Commentary on Esther.

² Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xii. c. 7. § 6, 7.

³ Schulzii Archæol. Hebr. pp. 335, 336. Lamy, vol. i. p. 186. Lightfoot’s Works, vol. i. pp. 246, 979. vol. ii. pp. 576, 1033, 1039. Relandi Antiq. Heb. p. 534.

of the seventh month, on account of the murder of Gedaliah (2 Kings xxv. 25.): and the feast of the tenth month, when the Babylonian army commenced the siege of Jerusalem. (Jer. lii. 4.) All these fasts are enumerated together in Zech. viii. 19.; and to them we may perhaps add the *xylophoria*, or feast of wood-offering, when the people brought and offered large quantities of wood for the use of the altar: it is supposed to have been celebrated in the time of Nehemiah (x. 34.), in whose praises, on this occasion, the Jews largely expatiated, and related several wonderful tales concerning him and the fire lighted upon the altar. (2 Macc. i. 18—22.)

The preceding are the chief annual festivals noticed in the sacred writings, that are particularly deserving of attention: the Jews have various others of more modern institution which are here designedly omitted. We therefore proceed to notice those extraordinary festivals which were only celebrated after the recurrence of a certain number of years. The first of these was,

XII. THE SABBATICAL YEAR. For, as the seventh day of the week was consecrated as a day of rest to man and beast, so this gave rest to the land; which, during its continuance, was to lie fallow, and the “sabbath of the land,” or its spontaneous produce, was dedicated to charitable uses, to be enjoyed by the servants of the family, by the way-faring stranger, and by the cattle. (Levit. xxv. 1—7. Exod. xxiii. 11.) This was also the year of release from personal slavery (Exod. xxi. 2.), as well as of the remission of debts. (Deut. xv. 1, 2.) Beausobre is of opinion that the frequent mention made in the New Testament, of the remission of sins, is to be understood as an allusion to the sabbatical year. In order to guard against famine on this and the ensuing year, God was graciously pleased to promise a triple produce of the lands upon the sixth year, sufficient to supply the inhabitants till the fruits or harvest sown in the eighth year were ripe. (Levit. xxv. 2—22.) This was a singular institution, peculiar to a theocracy. And the breach of it was among the national sins that occasioned the captivity, that *the land might enjoy her sabbaths*, of which she had been defrauded by the rebellion of the inhabitants.¹ (Levit. xxvi. 34. 2 Chron. xxxvi. 21.)

XIII. The JUBILEE was a more solemn sabbatical year, held every seventh sabbatical year, that is, at the end of every forty-nine years, or the fiftieth current year. (Levit. xxv. 8—10.) Concerning the etymology of the Hebrew word *jobel* (whence our jubilee is derived) learned men are by no means agreed; the most probable of these conflicting opinions is that of Calmet, who deduces it from the Hebrew verb *jabal*, to recall, or bring back; because estates, &c. that had been alienated were then brought back to their original owners. Such appears to have been the meaning of the word, as understood by the Septuagint translators, who render the Hebrew

¹ Schulzii Archæol. Hebr. pp. 337—339. Michaelis's Commentaries, vol. i. p. 387. et seq. Iouden. Philol. Hebr. Mixt. p. 307. Reland's Antiq. Hebr. p. 524. D. Hales's Analysis, vol. i. book i. p. 278.

word *jobel* by ἀφεσις, *remission*, and by Josephus, who says that it signified liberty.¹

This festival commenced on the tenth day of the month Tisri, in the evening of the day of atonement (Levit. xxv. 9.): a time, Bishop Patrick remarks, peculiarly well chosen, as the Jews would be better disposed to forgive their brethren their debts when they had been imploring pardon of God for their own transgressions. It was proclaimed by the sound of trumpet throughout the whole land, on the great day of atonement. All debts were to be cancelled; all slaves or captives were to be released. Even those who had voluntarily relinquished their freedom at the end of their six years' service, and whose ears had been bored in token of their perpetual servitude, were to be liberated at the jubilee: for then they were to *proclaim liberty throughout all the land, unto all the inhabitants thereof*. (Levit. xxv. 10.) Further, in this year all estates that had been sold, reverted to their original proprietors, or to the families to which they had originally belonged; this provision was made, that no family should be totally ruined, and doomed to perpetual poverty: for the family estate could not be alienated for a longer period than fifty years. The value and purchase-money of estates therefore diminished in proportion to the near approach of the jubilee. (Levit. xxv. 15.) From this privilege, however, houses in walled towns were excepted: these were to be redeemed within a year, otherwise they belonged to the purchaser, notwithstanding the jubilee. (ver. 30.) During this year, as well as in the sabbatical year, the ground also had its rest, and was not cultivated.²

The law concerning the sabbatical year, and especially the year of jubilee, affords a decisive proof of the divine legation of Moses. No legislator, unless he was conscious that he was divinely inspired, would have committed himself by enacting such a law: nor can any thing like it be found among the systems of jurisprudence of any other nations, whether ancient or modern. "How incredible is it, that any legislator would have ventured to propose such a law as this, except in consequence of the fullest conviction on both sides, that a peculiar providence would constantly facilitate its execution. When this law, therefore, was proposed and received, such a conviction must have existed in both the Jewish legislator and the Jewish people. Since then, nothing could have produced this conviction, but the experience or the belief of some such miraculous interposition as the history of the Pentateuch details, the very existence of this law is a standing monument that, when it was given, the Mosaic miracles were fully believed. Now this law was coeval with the witnesses themselves. If then the facts were so plain and public, that those who witnessed them could not be mistaken as to their

¹ Ant. Jud. lib. iii. c. xii. § 3.

² Schulzii Archæol. Hebr. pp. 341—344. Relandi Antiq. Hebr. p. 529. Jennings's Jewish Antiq. book iii. ch. x. pp. 397—400. Leusden, Philol. Hebræo-Mixt. p. 309. Michaelis's Commentaries, vol. i. pp. 376—386.

existence or miraculous nature, the reality of the Mosaic miracles is clear and undeniable."¹

The reason and design of the law of the jubilee was partly political and partly typical. It was *political*, to prevent the too great oppression of the poor as well as their liability to perpetual slavery. By this means the rich were prevented from accumulating lands upon lands, and a kind of equality was preserved through all the families of Israel. Never was there any people so effectually secure of their liberty and property, as the Israelites were: God not only engaging so to protect those invaluable blessings by his providence, that they should not be taken away from them by others; but providing, in a particular manner by this law, that they should not be thrown away through their own folly; since the property, which every man or family had in their dividend of the land of Canaan, could not be sold or any way alienated for above half a century. By this means also the distinction of tribes was preserved, in respect both to their families and possessions; for this law rendered it necessary for them to keep genealogies of their families, that they might be able when there was occasion, on the jubilee year, to prove their right to the inheritance of their ancestors. By this means it was certainly known from what tribe and family the Messiah sprung. Upon which Dr. Allix observes, that God did not suffer them to continue in captivity out of their own land for the space of two jubilees, lest by that means their genealogies should be lost or confounded.

A further civil use of the jubilee might be for the easier computation of time. For, as the Greeks computed by olympiads, the Romans by lustra, and we by centuries, the Jews probably reckoned by jubilees; and it might be one design of this institution to mark out these large portions of time for the readier computation of successive ages.

There was also a typical design and use of the jubilee, which is pointed out by the prophet Isaiah, when he says in reference to the Messiah, "the spirit of the Lord God is upon me, because the Lord hath anointed me to preach good tidings unto the meek; he hath sent me to bind up the broken-hearted, to proclaim liberty to the captives, and the opening of the prison to them that are bound, to proclaim the acceptable year of the Lord." (Isa. lxi. 1, 2.) Where "the acceptable year of the Lord," when "liberty was proclaimed to the captives," and "the opening of the prison to them that were bound," evidently refers to the jubilee; but, in the prophetic sense, means the Gospel state and dispensation, which proclaims spiritual liberty from the bondage of sin and Satan, and the liberty of returning to our own possession, even the heavenly inheritance, to which, having incurred a forfeiture by sin, we had lost all right and claim.

That our Lord began his public ministry on a jubilee, Dr. Hales

¹ Dr. Graves's Lectures on the Pentateuch, vol. i. p. 171.

thinks, is evident from his declaration "The Lord hath *anointed* me (as THE CHRIST) to preach the Gospel to the poor: he hath *sent* me (as SHILOH, 'THE APOSTLE') to heal the broken-hearted, to proclaim deliverance to the captives, and restoration of sight to the blind; to set at liberty the bruised; to *proclaim the acceptable year of THE LORD.*"¹ (Luke iv. 18, 19.)

CHAPTER V.

SACRED OBLIGATIONS AND DUTIES.

SECTION I.

OF OATHS AND VOWS.

I. *Of Oaths.* — II. *Nature of Vows — how far acceptable to God.* — III. *Requisites essential to the validity of a Vow.* — IV. *Different sorts of Vows.* — 1. *The Cherem or irremissible Vow.* — 2. *Other Vows that might be redeemed.* — *Of the Nazareate.*

I. **THE** person, who confirmed his assertion by a voluntary *Oath*, pronounced the same with his right hand elevated. Sometimes the swearer omitted the imprecation, as if he were afraid, and shuddered to utter it, although it was, from other sources, sufficiently well understood. (Gen. xiv. 22, 23. Ezek. xvii. 18.) Sometimes the imprecation was as follows; "*This and more than this may God do to me.*" (2 Sam. iii. 9. 35. Ruth i. 17. 1 Kings ii. 23. 2 Kings vi. 31.) Sometimes the swearer merely said: "*Let God be a witness;*" and sometimes affirmed, saying; "*As surely as God liveth.*" (Jer. xlii. 5. Ruth iii. 13. 1 Sam. xiv. 45. xx. 3. 21.)

The remarks which have now been made, apply to the person, who uttered the oath himself of his own accord. When an oath was *exacted*, whether by a judge or another, the person who exacted it put the oath in form: and the person to whom it was put, responded by saying, *Yea, Yea, so let it be:* or gave his response in other expressions of like import, such as *οὕτως εἶπας.* (Numb. v. 19 — 22. 1 Kings xxii. 16. Dent. xxvii. 15 — 26.) Sometimes the exacter of the oath merely used the following adjuration, viz. *I adjure you by the living God to answer, whether this thing be so or not.* And the person sworn accordingly made answer to the point in-

¹ Dr. Hales's Analysis, vol. ii. book i. p. 379. Lightfoot's Works, vol. ii. p. 619. The best practical illustration we have seen, of the analogy between the Mosaic jubilee and the Gospel, is to be found in the reverend and learned Dr. Claudius Buchanan's "Three Sermons on the Jubilee," celebrated on the 25th October, 1809, on the occasion of our late venerable Sovereign's entering on the fiftieth year of his reign.

quired of. (Numb. v. 22. Matt. xxvi. 63.) It should be remarked here, though the formulary of assent on the part of the respondent to an oath was frequently AMEN, AMEN, that this formulary did not always imply an oath, but, in some instances, was merely a protestation. As the oath was an appeal to God (Lev. xix. 12. Deut. vi. 13.), the taking of a false oath was deemed a heinous crime; and perjury, accordingly, was forbidden in those words, *Thou shalt not take the name of the Lord thy God in vain*, that is, shalt not call God to witness in pretended confirmation of a falsehood. (Exod. xx. 6.)

It was a common thing in Egypt in the time of Joseph, to swear by the *life of the king* (Gen. xlii. 15.): and this practice prevailed subsequently among the Hebrews. (1 Sam. xxv. 26. 2 Sam. xi. 11. xiv. 19. comp. Psal. lxiii. 11.) The Hebrews also swore by cities and consecrated places, such as Hebron, Shilo, and Jerusalem. A person sometimes swore *by himself* and sometimes by the *life of the person* before whom he spoke, viz. *בִּי* *by myself*, *חַי נַפְשִׁי* *by thee*, or *by thy life*. (1 Samuel i. 26. 2 Kings ii. 2. Judges vi. 13. 15. 1 Kings iii. 17. 26.) In some instances, persons adjured others by the beasts of the field (Sol. Song, ii. 7.), a sort of adjuration, which, to the present day, makes its appearance in the writings of the Arabian poets.¹

The Jews, in the time of Christ, were in the habit of swearing by the altar, by Jerusalem, by heaven, by the earth, by themselves, by their heads, by the gold of the temple, by sacrifices, &c. Because the name of God was not mentioned in these oaths, they considered them as imposing but small, if any obligation.² And we, accordingly, find, that the Saviour takes occasion to inveigh, in decided terms, against such arts of deception. (Matt. v. 33—37. xxiii. 16—22.) It is against oaths of this kind, and *these alone*, (not against an oath uttered in sincerity,) that he expresses his displeasure, and prohibits them. This is clear, since he himself consented to take upon him the solemnity of an oath (Matt. xxvi. 63.); and since Paul himself, in more than one instance, utters an adjuration. Compare Rom. ix. 1. 2 Cor. i. 23.

In the primitive periods of their history, the Hebrews religiously observed an oath (Josh. ix. 14, 15.), but we find, that in later times, they were often accused by the prophets of perjury. After the Captivity, the Jews became again celebrated for the scrupulous observance of what they had sworn to, but corruption soon increased among them: they revived the old forms, the words without the meaning; and acquired among all nations the reputation of perjurers.³

II. A vow is a religious engagement or promise voluntarily undertaken by a person towards Almighty God. "Unless the Deity has expressly declared his acceptance of human vows, it can at best

¹ Consult the Koran, Sura lxxxv. 1—3. lxxxvi. 1. 11—13. lxxxix. 1—4. xci. 1—8. &c.

² Matt. v. 34. 35. 37.

³ Mr. [unclear] Translation of Jahn's Archæologia Biblica. pp. 494. 495.

be but a very doubtful point, whether they *are* acceptable in his sight; and if they are not so, we cannot deduce from them the shadow of an obligation; for it is not from a mere offer alone, but from an offer of one party, and its acceptance by another, that the obligation to fulfil an engagement arises. The divine acceptance of vows, we can by no means take for granted; considering that from our vows God can derive no benefit, and that, in general, they are of just as little use to man.”¹ In Matt. xv. 4—6. and Mark vii. 9—13. Christ himself notices the vow of *Korban* (already considered), which was common in his time, and by which a man consecrated to God what he was bound to apply to the support of his parents; and he declares it to be so impious that we cannot possibly hold it to be acceptable to God. In the New Testament, no vows whatever are obligatory, because God has nowhere declared that he will accept them from Christians. But the people of Israel *had* such a declaration from God himself; although even *they* were not counselled or encouraged to make vows. In consequence of this declaration, the vows of the Israelites were binding; and *that* not only in a moral view, but according to the national law; and the priest was authorised to enforce and estimate their fulfilment. The principal passages relating to this point, are Levit. xxvii. Numbers xxx. and Deut. xxiii. 18, 21, 22, 23.

III. In order to render a vow valid, Moses requires,

1. That it be *actually uttered with the mouth*, and not merely made in the heart. In Numb. xxx. 3. 7. 9. 13. and Deut. xxiii. 24. he repeatedly calls it *the expression of the lips*, or, *what has gone forth from the mouth*; and the same phrase occurs in Psalm lxvi. 14. If, therefore, a person had merely made a vow in his heart, without letting it pass his lips, it would seem as if God would not accept such a vow; regarding it only as a resolution to vow, but not as a vow itself. This limitation is humane, and necessary to prevent much anxiety in conscientious people. If a vow made in the heart be valid, we shall often experience difficulty in distinguishing whether what we thought of was a bare intention, or a vow actually completed. Here, therefore, just as in a civil contract with our neighbour, words — *uttered words* — are necessary to prevent all uncertainty.

2. The party making the vow must be in his own power and competent to undertake the obligation. Therefore the vows of minors were void, unless they were ratified by the express or tacit consent of their parents. In like manner, neither married women nor slaves could oblige themselves by vow, unless they were ratified by their husbands or masters.

3. The thing vowed to be devoted to God must be *honestly obtained*. It is well known, that in antient times, many public prostitutes dedicated to their gods a part of their impure earnings. This is most expressly forbidden by Moses. (Deut. xxxiii. 18.)

¹ Michaelis's Commentaries on the Law of Moses, vol. ii. pp. 269—286.
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IV. There are two sorts of vows mentioned in the Jewish Law, viz. 1. The **חֵרֶם** (*cherem*), which was the most solemn of all, and was accompanied with a form of execration, and which could not be redeemed; and, 2. The **נֶדֶר** (*nedër*), or common vows.

1. The *cherem* is nowhere mentioned by Moses; nor does he specify by what solemnities or expressions it was distinguished from other vows, but pre-supposes all this as already well known. The species of *cherem* with which we are best acquainted, was the previous devotement to God of hostile cities, against which they intended to proceed with extreme severity; and *that* with a view the more to inflame the minds of the people to war. In such cases, not only were all the inhabitants put to death, but also, according as the terms of the vow declared, no booty was made by any Israelite; the beasts were slain; what would not burn, as gold, silver, and other metals, was added to the treasure of the sanctuary; and every thing else, with the whole city, burnt, and an imprecation pronounced upon any attempt that should ever be made to rebuild it. Of this the history of Jericho (*Josh. vi. 17—19. 21—24. and vii. 1. 12—26.*) furnishes the most remarkable example. In Moses's lifetime we find a similar vow against the king of Arad (*Numb. xxi. 1—3.*) If an Israelitish city introduced the worship of strange gods, it was (as we have already seen) in like manner, to be devoted or consecrated to God, and to remain un-rebuilt for ever. (*Deut. xiii. 16.—18.*) Jephthah's dedication of his daughter is generally supposed to have been a *cherem*: but we have shewn in another part of this work that he did not sacrifice her.¹ The text (*Judg. xi. 30.*) says that *Jephthah vowed a vow* (**נֶדֶר**, *nedër*) *unto the Lord*, and again (*verse 39.*) that *he did with her according to his vow* (**נֶדֶר**). There is no word in either of these passages, that either expresses or implies a *cherem*.

2. The common vows were divided into two sorts, viz. 1. Vows of dedication, and 2. Vows of self-interdiction or abstinence.

1. The **נֶדֶר** (*nedër*) or vow, in the stricter sense of the word, was when a person engaged to do any thing, as, for instance, to bring an offering to God; or otherwise to dedicate any thing unto him. Things vowed in this way, were, 1. *Unclean beasts*. These might be estimated by the priest, and redeemed by the vower, by the addition of one-fifth to the value. (*Lev. xxvii. 11—13.*)—2. *Clean beasts used for offerings*. Here there was no right of redemption; nor could the beasts be exchanged for others under the penalty of both being forfeited, and belonging to the Lord. (*Lev. xxvii. 9, 10.*)—3. *Lands and houses*. These had the privilege of valuation and redemption. (*Lev. xxvii. 14—24.*)—To these we have to add, 4. *The person of the vower himself*, with the like privilege. (*Lev. xxvii. 1—8.*) To this species of vow Michaelis thinks the *second tenths* may have belonged, as Moses nowhere speaks of them as a new institution. They most probably derived their origin from the vow is recorded in *Gen. xxviii. 22.*

ii. Vows of *self-interdiction* or *self-denial* were, when a person engaged to abstain from any wine, food, or any other thing. These are especially distinguished by Moses from other vows in Numb. xxx., and are there termed **אִסָּר** (ASSAR), or **אִסָּר עַל נֶפֶשׁ** (ASSAR AL NEPHESH), that is, a *bond upon the soul or person, a self-interdiction from some desire of nature, or of the heart, or, in other words, a vow of abstinence*, particularly from eating and drinking. Among this species of vows may be classed those of the *Nazareate* or *Nazaritism*; which Michaelis is of opinion, was not instituted by Moses, but was of more antient, and probably of Egyptian origin; the Hebrew legislator giving certain injunctions for the better regulation and performance of these vows. The statutes respecting the Nazareate are related in the sixth chapter of the book of Numbers. Lamy, Calmet, and others have distinguished two classes of Nazarites: first, *those who were Nazarites by birth*, as Sampson and John the Baptist were; and, secondly, *those who were Nazarites by vow and engagement*; who followed this mode of living for a limited time at the expiration of which they cut off their hair at the door of the tabernacle, and offered certain sacrifices. The Nazarites were required to abstain from wine, fermented liquors, and every thing made of grapes, to let their hair grow, and not to defile themselves by touching the dead; and if any person had accidentally expired in their presence, the Nazarites of the second class were obliged to recommence their Nazariteship.

Similar to the Nazareate was the vow frequently made by devout Jews, on their recovery from sickness, or deliverance from danger or distress; who, for thirty days before they offered sacrifices, abstained from wine, and shaved the hair of their head.¹ This usage illustrates the conduct of Paul, as related in Acts xviii. 18. The apostle, in consequence of a providential deliverance from some imminent peril not recorded by the sacred writer, bound himself by a vow, which the law in this case required him to pay at Jerusalem. In consequence of this transaction Luke relates, that he shaved his head at Cenchrea. Paul, in his intended journey afterwards to Judæa, says, *he must needs go to Jerusalem*: for the laws respecting the Nazarite's vow required the person who had entered into this engagement, if he were in a foreign country when he first laid himself under this solemn obligation, to go up to Jerusalem to accomplish it. Here several appointed sacrifices were offered, and a certain course of purifications and religious observances was prescribed and performed. This appears from another passage in the

¹ An usage similar to the vow of Nazariteship, exists in Persia to this day. It frequently happens after the birth of a son, that if the parent be in distress, or the child be sick, or that there be any cause of grief, the mother makes a vow, that no razor shall come upon the child's head for a certain portion of time, and sometimes for his whole life, as Samuel was. (1 Sam. i. 11.) If the child recovers, and the cause of grief be removed, she may be but for a season, so that the mother's vow be fulfilled, then she shaves his head at the end of the time prescribed, makes a small entertainment, collects money and other things from her relations and friends, which are sent as *Netzers* or offerings to the mosque at Kerbelah, and are there consecrated. Morier's Second Journey, p. 109.

same sacred writer. (Acts xxi. 23, 24. 26, 27.) "*We have four men who have a vow on them; them take and PURIFY thyself with them, and be at charges with them, that THEY MAY SHAVE THEIR HEADS. Then Paul took the men: and the next day purifying himself with them, entered into the temple, to signify the accomplishment of the days of purification; and that an offering should be offered for every one of them. And when the SEVEN days were almost ended,*" &c. Josephus presents us with an instance parallel to this of Paul, in the person of Bernice, who went to Jerusalem, in order to perform a vow which she had made to God.¹

SECTION II.

ON THE PURIFICATIONS OF THE JEWS.

- I. *Materials, with which the Purifications of the Jews were performed.*—
- II. *Ceremonies of Purification.*—III. *Of the Persons lustrated.*—
- IV. *Account of the different kinds of legal impurities, particularly*
 1. *The Leprosy of the Person.*—2. *The Leprosy of Clothes.*—3. *The House Leprosy.*—V. *Minor legal impurities, and their lustrations.*

IT was requisite that every one who was about to make any offering to Jehovah should be cleansed from all impurities, or lustrated—to adopt an expression in common use among the Romans. The materials, form, and ceremonies of these lustrations, which were prescribed by Moses, were various, according to different circumstances. The design of them all was not only to preserve both the health and morals of the Israelites, but also to intimate how necessary it was to preserve inward purity, without which they could not be acceptable to God, though they might approach his sanctuary.

I. The purifications were for the most part performed with water sometimes with blood (Heb. ix. 21, 22.), and with oil. (Exod. xxx. 23—29. Lev. viii. 10, 11.)² The water of purification was to be drawn from a spring or running stream, and was either pure, or mixed with blood (Heb. ix. 19.) or with the ashes of the red heifer. For preparing these ashes, a heifer of a red colour was burnt with great solemnity. This ceremony is described at length in the nineteenth chapter of the book of Numbers. As all the people were to be interested in it, the victim was to be provided at their charge. This Jewish rite certainly had a reference to things done under the Gospel, as St. Paul has remarked in his Epistle to the Hebrews.

¹ See Lamy's Apparatus Biblicus, vol. i. p. 221. Calmet's Dictionary, voce *Nazarite*. Fleury's Manners of the Israelites, pp. 338, 339. Lardner's Credibility, book i. c. 9. § 7. (Works, vol. i. pp. 208—212.) Jennings's Jewish Antiquities, book i. c. 8. pp. 114—220. Reland's Antiq. Hebr. part. i. c. 10. pp. 284—289. Michaelis's Commentaries on the Laws of Moses, vol. ii. pp. 260—271. 280²—283. Dr. Randolph's Discourse on Jephthah's Vow in his View of Christ's Ministry, &c. vol. ii. pp. 166—272.

² Nehem. x. 1. Jer. lib. iii. c. 8. § 6.

For if the blood of bulls and of goats (alluding to the sin-offerings, and to the scape-goat), *and THE ASHES OF A HEIFER, sprinkling the unclean, sanctifieth to the purifying of the flesh, how much more shall the blood of Christ . . . purge (or purify) your conscience from dead works to serve the living God.* As the principal stress of allusion in this passage is to the ordinance of the red heifer, we may certainly conclude that it was designed to typify the sacrifice of our adorable Redeemer.

In the ordinance of the red heifer, we may perceive the wisdom of Moses (under the guidance of Jehovah) in taking every precaution that could prevent the Israelites from falling into idolatry. The animal to be selected was a *heifer*, in opposition to the superstition of the Egyptians, who held these to be sacred, and worshipped Isis under the form of a heifer:—it was also to be a *red heifer*, *without spot*, that is, altogether red, because *red bulls* were sacrificed to appease the evil demon Typhon, that was worshipped by the Egyptians; *wherein was no blemish*, so that it was free from every imperfection;—*on which never came yoke*, because any animal that had been used for any common purpose, was deemed improper to be offered in sacrifice to God.¹

The animal being slain, and her blood sprinkled as directed in Numb. xix. 3, 4., was then reduced to ashes, which were to be collected and mixed with running water (ver. 9. 17.), for the purpose of lustration.

II. The Jews had two sorts of washing; one,—of the whole body by *immersion*, which was used by the priests at their consecration, and by the proselytes at their initiation;—the other, of the hands or feet, called *dipping* or *pouring of water*, and which was of daily use, not only for the hands and feet but also for the cups and other vessels used at their meals. (Matt. xv. 2. Mark vii. 3, 4.) The six water pots of stone, used at the marriage feast of Cana, in Galilee (John ii. 6.), were set for this purpose.² To these two modes of purification Jesus Christ seems to allude in John xiii. 10.; where the being *wholly washed* implies one who had become a disciple of Christ, and consequently had renounced the sins of his former life. He who had so done, was supposed to be wholly washed, and not to need another immersion, in imitation of the ceremony of initiation, which was never repeated among the Jews. All that was necessary in such case was, the dipping or rinsing of the hands and feet, agreeably to the customs of the Jews. Sometimes the lustra-

¹ This opinion obtained among the ancient Greeks. See particularly Homer's *Iliad*, x. 291—293. and *Odys.* iii. 382. and Virgil's *Georgics*, iv. 550, 551.

² While Mr. W. Ras Wilson (who visited Palestine in 1819) was at Cana, "six women having their faces veiled, came down to the well, each carrying on her head a pot for the purpose of being filled with water. These vessels were formed of stone, and something in the shape of bottles used in our country for containing vitriol, having great bodies and small necks, with this exception, they were not so large; many had handles attached to the sides; and it was a wonderful coincidence with Scripture, that the vessels appeared to contain much the same quantity as those, which the Evangelist informs [us] had been employed on occasion of the nuptial celebration," viz. "three firkins," that is, about twelve gallons each. (Wilson's *Travels in Egypt and the Holy land*, p. 333.)

tion was performed by sprinkling blood, or anointing with oil. Sprinkling was performed either with the finger or with a branch of cedar and hyssop tied together with scarlet wool. (Levit. xiv. 4. 6. Numb. xix. 18. Psal. li. 7.)

III. The objects of lustration were either persons or things dedicated to divine worship. The Levites, priests, and above all, the high priest underwent a purification previously to undertaking their office. In like manner the Israelites were commanded to sanctify themselves by ablutions both of their persons and clothes &c. previously to receiving the law (Exod. xix. 10, 11. 14, 15. Heb. ix. 19.); and after the giving of the law and the people's assent to the book of the covenant, Moses sprinkled them with blood. (Exod. xxiv. 5—8. Heb. ix. 19.) So also were the tabernacle, and all its sacred vessels anointed with oil (Exod. xxx. 26—28. xl. 9—11. Levit. viii. 10, 11.), and as Saint Paul further intimates, were sprinkled with the blood of the victims.

Those who were about to offer sacrifice unto Jehovah, were also to be lustrated (1 Sam. xvi. 5.); as well as those who were repairing to divine worship to offer their prayers (Judith xii. 7, 8.); and especially the priests and the high priest, before they executed their respective offices. (Exod. xxx. 20.) Lastly, all who according to the Mosaic law were adjudged impure, were to be purified before they could be admitted into the congregation of the Lord. (Numb. xix. 20.)

IV. In the Mosaic law, those persons are termed *unclean*, whom others were obliged to avoid touching, or even meeting, unless they chose to be themselves defiled, that is, cut off from all intercourse with their brethren; and who, besides, were bound to abstain from frequenting the place where divine service and the offering-feasts were held, under penalties still more severe.

The duration and degrees of impurity were different. In some instances, by the use of certain ceremonies, an unclean person became purified at sunset; in others, this did not take place, until eight days after the physical cause of defilement ceased. Lepers were obliged to live in a detached situation, separate from other people, and to keep themselves actually at a distance from them. They were distinguished by a peculiar dress; and if any person approached, they were bound to give him warning, by crying out, *Unclean! unclean!* Other polluted persons, again, could not directly touch those that were clean, without defiling them in like manner, and were obliged to remain without the *camp*, that they might not be in their way. (Numb. v. 1—4.) Eleven different species of impurity are enumerated in the Levitical law, to which the later Jews added many others. But the severest of all was,

1. The *Leprosy*, an infectious disease of slow and imperceptible progress, beginning very insidiously and gently, for the most part with one little bright spot, which causes no trouble, though no means will make it disappear: but increasing with time into furfureous scales, and ultimately become a thick scab, it imperceptibly

passes into a disease, which, though divested of its deadly nature in our temperate climates and by our superior cleanliness, is in the East attended with the most formidable symptoms: such as mortification and separation of whole limbs, and when arrived at a certain stage, it is altogether incurable. Among the heathens, the leprosy was considered as inflicted by their gods, by whom alone it could be removed, and the same notion appears to have prevailed among the Israelites; for when the king of Syria sent Naaman, his commander in chief, to the king of Israel, to heal him of his leprosy, the latter exclaimed, — *Am I God, to kill and make alive, that this man doth send unto me, to recover a man of his leprosy?* (2 Kings v. 7.)

This frightful disease was not peculiar to the Israelites, but antiently was endemic (as it now is in Egypt, and other countries). The burning ulceration with which the great adversary of man afflicted the venerable patriarch Job (ii. 7.), is generally understood to be the *elephantiasis* or leprosy of the Arabians; and derives its name from its rendering the skin of the patient, like that of an elephant, scabrous and dark coloured, and furrowed all over with tubercles, loathsome alike to the individual and to the spectators. The Mosaic statutes respecting leprosy are recorded in Lev. xiii. and xiv. Numb. v. 1—4. and Dent. xxiv. 8, 9. They are in substance as follows:—

(1.) The suspected person was to be inspected by a priest, both as acting in a judicial capacity, and as being skilled in medicine. The signs of the disease, which are circumstantially pointed out in the statute itself, accord with those which have been noticed by modern physicians. If, on the first inspection, there remained any doubt as to the spot being really a symptom of leprosy, the suspected person was shut up for *seven* days, in order that it might be ascertained, whether it spread, disappeared, or remained as it was; and this confinement might be repeated. During this time, it is probable that means were used to remove the spot. If in the meantime it spread, or continued as it was, without becoming paler, it excited a strong suspicion of real leprosy, and the person inspected was declared unclean. If it disappeared, and after his liberation became again manifest, a fresh inspection took place.

(2.) The unclean were separated from the rest of the people. So early as the second year of the Exodus, lepers were obliged to reside without the camp (Numb. v. 1—4.): and so strictly was this law enforced, that the sister of Moses himself becoming leprous, was expelled from it. (Numb. xii. 14—16.) When the Israelites came into their own land, and lived in cities, the spirit of the law thus far operated, that lepers were obliged to reside in a separate place, which was called *בֵּית חֲפִשִּׁית* BETH CHOPHSCHITH, or the *house of uncleanness*; and from this seclusion, not even kings, when they became leprous, were exempted. (2 Kings xv. 5.) As, however, a leper cannot always be within doors¹, and may, consequently, some-

¹ In the East, lepers are not at this day absolutely interdicted from going abroad; for they are not considered as pestilential. — Niebuhr says (p. 146) "I might have seen

times meet clean persons, he was obliged, in the *first* place, to make himself known by his dress, and to go about with torn clothes, a bare head, and his chin covered; and, in the *next* place, when any one came too near him, to cry out that he was *Unclean*. (Numb. xiii. 45, 46.)

(3.) Although a leper, merely meeting and touching a person, could not have immediately infected him; yet, as such a rencontre and touch would have rendered him Levitically unclean, in order to prevent leprosy from spreading, in consequence of close communication, it was an established rule to consider a leprous person as likewise unclean in a Levitical or civil sense; and, consequently, whoever touched him, became also unclean; not indeed medically or physically so, — that is, *infected* by one single touch, — but still unclean in a civil sense.

(4.) On the other hand, however, for the benefit of those found clean, the law itself specified those who were to be pronounced free from the disorder: and such persons were then clear of all reproach, until they again fell under accusation from manifest symptoms of infection.

The man who, on the first inspection, was found clean, or in whom the supposed symptoms of leprosy disappeared during confinement, was declared clean: only in the latter case, he was obliged to have his clothes washed. If, again, he had actually had the disorder, and got rid of it, the law required him to make certain offerings, in the course of which he was pronounced clean.

(5.) The leprous person was to use every effort in his power to be healed; and therefore was strictly to follow the directions of the priests. This Michaelis is of opinion, may fairly be inferred from Deut. xxiv. 8.

(6.) When healed of his leprosy, the person was to go and shew himself to the priests, that he might be declared clean, and offer the sacrifice enjoined in that case; and when purified, that he might be again admitted into civil society. (Matt. viii. 4. Levit. xiv. 11—32.)

(7.) Lastly, As this disease was so offensive to the Israelites, God, commanded them to use frequent ablutions, and prohibited them from eating swine's flesh and other articles of animal food that had a tendency to produce this disease.

The peculiar lustrations, which a person who had been healed of a leprosy was to undergo, are detailed in Lev. xiv.

Besides the leprosy of the person, Moses mentions two other species of leprosy, *viz.* of clothes and of houses, which are in a great measure unknown in Europe.

(2.) The *Leprosy of Clothes* is described in Levit. xiii. 47—59. as consisting of green or reddish spots, which remain in spite of washing and still spread; so that the cloth becomes bald or bare, sometimes on one side, and sometimes on the other. From the inform-

numbers of them; . . . whenever I observed any of them meeting me in the streets, I deemed it prudent to avoid them."

ation which Michaelis received from a woollen manufacturer, he supposes this disease to arise in woollen cloth, from the use of the wool of sheep that have died of disease; which, when worn next the skin (as in the East), is very apt to produce vermin. With respect to leather and linen, he could obtain no information.

Clothes suspected to be thus tainted, were to be inspected by the priest; if they were found to be corroded by the leprosy, they were to be burnt; but if, after being washed, the plague was found to have departed from them, they were to be pronounced clean.

3. The *House-Leprosy* is said in Levit. xiv. 33—37. to consist of greenish or reddish spots or dimples, that appear on the walls, and continually spread wider and wider. Michaelis considers it to be the same as the *saltpetre*, which sometimes attacks and corrodes houses that stand in damp situations. Although in Europe unattended with any injury to health, in Palestine it might be hurtful: so that the Mosaic regulations in this respect are both wise and provident.

When a house was suspected to be thus tainted, the priest was to examine it, and ordered it to be shut up seven days. If he found that the plague or signs of the plague had not spread, he commanded it to be shut up seven days more. On the thirteenth day he revisited it; and if he found the infected place *dim*, or gone away, he took out that part of the wall, carried it out to an unclean place, mended the wall, and caused the whole house to be newly plastered. It was then shut up a third seven days; he once more inspected it on the nineteenth day; and if he found that the plague had broken out anew, he ordered the house to be pulled down. If on the other hand it was pronounced to be clean, an offering was made on the occasion; in order that every one might certainly know that it was not infected, and the public might be freed from all apprehensions on that account.

V. Various other legal impurities are enumerated in Levit. xii. 1—8. and xv., which it is not necessary to detail. To which we may add, that all human corpses and the carcases of beasts that died in any other way than by the knife, were regarded as unclean. Whoever touched the *former*, or went into the *tent*, or *apartment* (after the Israelites had houses), where a corpse lay, was unclean for seven days; and whoever touched a dead body, or even a human bone, or a grave in the fields, was unclean for the same period. The body of a clean beast that fell not by the knife, but died in any other way, defiled the person who touched it, until the evening (Levit. xi. 39.); and the carcases of unclean beasts, by whatever means they died, did the same. (Levit. v. 2. xi. 8. **11. 24, 25, 27, 28. 31. Deut. xiv. 8.**) The consequence of this law was, that the carcases of beasts were not suffered to remain above ground, but were put into the earth, that passengers might not be in danger of pollution from them.

By these wise enactments, the spreading of contagious diseases would be effectually prevented, which in hot climates are peculiarly

rapid and fatal. For the same reason also, Michaelis is of opinion, that Moses commanded the Israelites to break earthen vessels, which were liable to be defiled by being left uncovered in a tent or apartment where a person died, or a corpse lay (Numb. xix. 15.), or by an unclean beast falling into them (Levit. xi. 33.), or by the touch of a diseased person. (Levit. xv. 12.)¹

Such are the Mosaic statutes concerning purifications and impurities. Profane scoffers, who deride those things, the reason and propriety of which they will not take the trouble to investigate, have ridiculed them as too minute, — especially those respecting the different species of leprosy, — and as unworthy to be made part of a divine law. But every well regulated mind surely must discern in them both the goodness and wisdom of Jehovah towards his chosen people, in giving them precepts which were calculated not only to preserve their health and regulate their morals, but also to accustom them to obedience to his will in every respect. The leprosy has ever been considered as a lively emblem of that moral taint or “corruption of the nature of every man *that naturally is engendered of the offspring of Adam*”²;” as the sacrifices, which were to be offered by the healed leper, prefigured that spotless *Lamb of God that taketh away the sin of the world*.

CHAPTER VI.

ON THE CORRUPTIONS OF RELIGION BY THE JEWS.

SECTION I.

ON THE IDOLATRY OF THE JEWS.

I. *Origin and Progress of Idolatry.* — II. *Sketch of its History among the Israelites and Jews.* — III. *Idols worshipped by the Israelites alone.* — IV. *Idols of the Ammonites, worshipped by the Israelites.* — V. *Idols of the Canaanites or Syrians.* — VI. *Phœnician Idols.* — VII. *Idols worshipped in Samaria during the Captivity.* — VIII. *Hieroglyphic Stones, why prohibited to the Jews.* — IX. *Idols of the Greeks and Romans mentioned in the New Testament.* — X. *Allusions in the Scriptures to the idolatrous worship of the heathen nations.* — *Different kinds of divination.*

I. **IDOLATRY** is the superstitious worship of idols or false gods. From Gen. vi. 5. compared with Rom. i. 23. there is every reason

¹ Schulz, *Archæologia Hebræa*, p. 303—310. Michaelis's *Commentaries*, vol. iii. pp. 254—339.

² Article *Idol* of the Confession of the Anglican Church.

to believe that it was practised before the flood; and this conjecture is confirmed by the apostle Jude (ver. 4.), who describing the character of certain men in his days that *denied the only Lord God*, adds, in the eleventh verse of his epistle, *Woe unto them, for they are gone into the way of Cain*; whence it may be inferred that Cain and his descendants were the first who threw off the sense of a God, and worshipped the creature instead of the Creator. “That the worship of the one true God was the religion of Noah and his posterity before the dispersion of mankind, admits not a doubt. In this primitive and patriarchal religion, as incidentally disclosed by Moses, we discover the leading characters of that worship which was afterwards restored and guarded by the Jewish institutions; and which was calculated to preserve the knowledge of God, as the Creator of the world, by the observance of the sabbath; as well as to inculcate the heinousness of sin, and typify the death of Christ, by the use of sacrifice. These simple ceremonies, together with the observance of the great rules of morality, and the prohibition of blood, in order to excite a stronger abhorrence against shedding the blood of one another, formed the entire exterior of the religion of Noah. The higher we are able to trace the history of every antient nation, and the nearer we approach the sources of eastern tradition, the more plain traces do we discover of this pure and simple worship; in which every father of a family acted as its priest, and assembled his progeny round the rustic altar of earth, to join in the sacrifice and the prayers he offered to the Creator and Governor of the world; to deprecate his wrath, and implore his blessing. But the corrupt imaginations of men’s hearts would not permit them to rest satisfied with a religion so pure and a ritual so simple: they looked to the sun¹ in its glory, they observed the moon and the stars walking in their brightness: they felt the benefits which through their influence were derived to men. They perhaps first considered them as the peculiar residence, or the chief ministers, or the most worthy representatives, of the divinity; and in honouring and worshipping them, possibly conceived they were honouring the majesty, and fulfilling the will of their Creator: but they soon forgot the Creator whom they could not see, and gave his glory to the creature, whose existence was obvious to the sense and captivating to the imagination. They seem to have conceived these luminaries to be moved and animated by distinct and independent spirits², and therefore fit objects of immediate worship. To represent them in their absence, they erected pillars and statues on the tops of hills and mountains, or on pyramids and high buildings,

¹ Vide Job xxxi. 26, 27. Deut. iv. 19. Wisdom of Sol. xiii. 2, 3. Maimonides de Idololatria, the five first chapters. Diod. Sicul. lib. i. cap. i. Euseb. Præpar. Evang. lib. i. cap. ix. Herodotus, Clio, cap. cxxxi. Plato in Cratylus, p. 397. — Vide also Banier’s Mythology, book iii. ch. iii. Leland’s Advantage of Revelation, part i. ch. iii. And Bryant’s Analys. of Mythology, who affirms that the gods of Greece were originally one god, the sun, vol. i. 305.

² Cicero de Natura Deorum, lib. ii. cap. xv. to xxiii.

raised for the purpose¹; as if they could thus approach nearer the presence of their divinities. They set apart priests, and appointed times and sacrifices suited to the luminary they adored: hence the rising and the setting sun, the different seasons of the year, the new and full moon, the quarters of the heavens, the constellations and conjunctions of the stars, acquired a peculiar sacredness, and were conceived to possess a peculiar influence. It now became the interest of the priests to persuade men, that the² pillars and statues set up as representatives of the host of heaven, partook themselves of the same spirit, and communicated the same influence, as the sacred objects which they represented. Thus degraded man bowed down to the senseless image which he had himself set up, and forgot that there was a lie in his right hand. (Isa. xlv. 20.) From similar principles³, other men adopted different objects of worship; light and air, wind and fire, seemed to them active spirits, by whose beneficent energy all the operations of nature were conducted and controlled. Water and earth⁴ formed the universal parents, from which all things derived their origin and to which they were still indebted for their sustenance. Thus these also became the objects, first of gratitude and admiration, next of awe and reverence. They also had their temples and emblematic images, their priests, and worshippers. But the folly of idolatry did not stop here. Not satisfied with adoring the host of heaven and the elements of nature, as the beneficent instruments of blessing, human weakness led man, first to tremble with horror, and then to bow down with a base and grovelling superstition to objects of an opposite nature, to every thing which seemed gloomy and malignant. The⁵ mixture of good and evil in the world suggested the idea of an evil principle independent of and at war with the good, which it was necessary to soothe and conciliate. Darkness, storm, and pestilence, the fates, the furies, and a multitude of similar objects, were honoured with a heart-debasing homage, by their terrified and trembling votaries. Nor was this yet the worst⁶; gratitude to the inventor of useful arts, to the wise legislator, to the brave defender of his country, combined with the vanity of kings, the pride of conquerors, and even private affection and fond regret for the parent, the child, the consort, the friend, led men first to erect monuments to the memory of the dead, and then to worship them as divine. They sometimes transferred to these their fellow-creatures, the names of the lumi-

¹ Maimonides More Nevochim, pars iii. cap. xxix. p. 423. Winder's History of Knowledge, vol. i. cap. xii. sect. 3.

² Maimonides ut supra. Herod. Clio, cap. xiii.: and as to the use of mountains by the Persians. Ibid.

³ Wisdom, xiii. 2. Herod. Clio, cap. cxxx. Cicero de Natura Deorum, lib. ii. cap. xxviii. Hutchinson, vol. i. pp. 24; 25.

⁴ Cicero de Natura Deorum, lib. i. cap. x.

⁵ Vide Vossius de Idolatria, l. 5. c. v. Vossius however imputes a much greater antiquity to this species of idolatry, than the testimony of history warrants.

⁶ Cicero de Natura Deorum, lib. ii. cap. xxiv. Leland's Advantage of Revelation, part i. ch. iv.

naries and elements of nature, whose utility and beneficence they conceived were thus best represented. Hence, in process of time, arose a 'communication of attributes and honours, of priests and worshippers; and, — to close the degrading catalogue of idolatrous absurdities, and verify St. Paul's assertion, that *professing themselves to be wise, they became fools*, — Egypt², the chief seat of antient wisdom and policy, of arts and letters, introduced objects of worship, still more grovelling and base than any which had preceded. In some instances, the policy of its kings led them to encourage the preservation of those animals whose labours they employed in cultivating the earth, or whose useful activity they saw exerted in destroying the venomous reptiles and destructive animals by which they were infested. For this purpose, they sanctified them as emblematic of some divinity, or even worshipped them as in themselves divine; while, on the other hand, the Egyptian priests, with an affectation of mysterious wisdom, expressed the attributes of God, the operations of the elements, the motions and influences of the heavenly bodies, the rising and falling of the Nile, and its effects, by symbolic representations derived from the known and familiar properties of animals and even vegetables. Hence these became, first, representations of their divinities, and afterwards the direct objects of divine reverence. Thus man was taught to bow down to birds and beasts and creeping things, to plants and herbs, to stocks and stones. Nothing was too base for grovelling superstition to adore; the heavens, the earth, the air, the sea, each hill, each river, each wood, was peopled with imaginary deities; every nation, every city, every family, had its peculiar guardian gods. The name and reverence of the Supreme Father of the universe was banished from the earth: or, if remembered at all, men scrupled not to associate with him their basest idols; and deeming him too exalted and remote to regard human affairs, they looked to these idols as the immediate authors of evil and of good; they judged of their power by comparing the degrees of prosperity their worshippers enjoyed. Was one nation or family more successful than another, their guardian gods were adopted by their rivals; and every day extended more widely this intercommunity of folly and of blasphemy.”³

II. The heavenly bodies, we have seen were the first objects of idolatrous worship; and Mesopotamia and Chaldaea were the countries where it chiefly prevailed after the deluge. Before Jehovah vouchsafed to reveal himself to them, both Terah and his son Abraham were idolaters (Josh. xxiv. 2.), as also was Laban, the father-in-law of Jacob (Gen. xxxi. 19. 30.); though he appears to

¹ Warb. Div. Leg. b. ii. sect. vi.

² Vide Selden de Diis Syris. Prologomena, cap. iii. p. 53. ; and Bryant's *Analys. of Mythology*, vol. i. p. 331. &c. Warburton's *Divine Legat.* b. iv. sec. iv. vol. iii. p. 197. Cicero de *Natura Deorum*, lib. i. sect. xxxvi. Chadworth's *Intellectual System*, ch. iv. sect. xviii.

³ Dr. Graves's *Lectures on the Pentateuch*, vol. i. pp. 183—190.

have had some idea of the true God, from his mentioning the name of Jehovah on several occasions. (Gen. xxiv. 31. 50, 51.) Previously to Jacob and his sons going into Egypt, idolatry prevailed in Canaan: and while their posterity were resident in that country, it appears from Josh. xxiv. 14. and Ezek. xx. 7, 8. that they worshipped the deities of Egypt, of which the river Nile was one of the principal. And as the Egyptians annually sacrificed a *girl*, or, as some writers state, both a *boy* and a *girl* to this river, in gratitude for the benefits they received from it, — the plague, by which its waters were converted into blood, might have been designed by God as a punishment for such cruelty, and also as a display of retributive justice against the Egyptians for the murderous decree, which enacted that all the male children of the Israelites should be drowned in that river, the waters of which, so necessary to their support and life, were now rendered not only insalubrious, but deadly, by being turned into blood, and rendered fetid and corrupt. The contempt, thus poured upon the object of their adoration must have had a direct tendency to correct their idolatrous notions, and lead them to acknowledge the power and authority of the true God.¹

On the departure of the Israelites from Egypt, although Moses by the command and instruction of Jehovah had given them such a religion as no other nation possessed, and notwithstanding all his laws were directed to preserve them from idolatry; yet, so wayward were the Israelites, that almost immediately after their deliverance from bondage, we find them worshipping idols. (Exod. xxxii. 1. Psal. cvi. 19, 20. Acts vii. 41—43.) Soon after their entrance into the land of Canaan, they adopted various deities that were worshipped by the Canaanites, and other neighbouring nations (Judges ii. 13. viii. 33.); for which base ingratitude they were severely punished. Shortly after the death of Joshua, the government became so unsettled, that *every man did that which seemed right in his own eyes*. The prophet Azariah describes the infelicity of these times, when he says, *They were without the true God, without a teaching priest, and without the law* (2 Chron. xv. 3.): and as anarchy prevailed, so did idolatry, which first crept into the tribe of Ephraim in the house of Micah, and thence soon spread itself amongst the Danites. Micah is said to have had a *house of gods, to have made an ephod and teraphim, and to have consecrated one of his sons as the priest of his family*. (Judg. xvii. 5.) In this he appears (as the Jews afterwards did) to have blended the worship of God and the worship of idols together; for, throughout the whole story, both Micah and his mother seem to retain a reverence of Jehovah: it is said that *she dedicated the silver to the Lord*. (Ver. 3.) And so far did they shew a regard to the law of God, that a priest was consecrated to serve in this newly erected chapel, and an ephod provided in imitation of the priestly vestments used in the tabernacle in Shiloh; but still

¹ Ancient Universal History, vol. I. p. 178. (fol. edit.) Dr. A. Clarke on Exod. vii. 22.

this teraphim seems to be an intermediate image, in the likeness of which God was worshipped by them, and consequently their worship was idolatrous.

This growing evil soon spread amongst the Danites, who robbed Micah of his gods. Here it took deep root, having escaped the reformation of the judges, although they were all of them very zealous for Jehovah; which might be occasioned either from Dan's lying at the extremity of the kingdom, or because scarcely any of the judges ruled over all the people, but only over such tribes as they had freed from captivity: and no doubt the prevalency of idolatry here, was one great reason why Jeroboam afterwards made choice of Dan as a depository of one of his golden calves. Nor were the other tribes free from this infection, during this dissolution of the government, for it is said, *They forsook the Lord and served Baal and Ashtaroth, and followed the other gods of the people round about them.* (Judg. ii. 13, 12.)

Under the government of Samuel, Saul, and David, the worship of God seems to have been purer than in former times: there was indeed a corruption and irregularity very visible in their manners, but fewer complaints of idolatry were made than at other times. Solomon is the first king, who, out of complaisance to the strange women he had married, caused temples to be erected in honour of their gods, and did so far impiously comply with them himself, as to offer incense to these false deities (1 Kings xi. 5—8.): so fatal an evil is lust to the best understandings, which besots every one it overcomes, and reigns over them with uncontrolled power! Solomon, it is true, did not arrive at that pitch of audacity which some of his successors afterwards did, nor did he entirely forsake the Lord, but seemed to encourage the worship at the temple; but his giving the smallest countenance in the breach of the divine law among a people so prone to idolatry, could not but be attended with the worst consequences, especially being done by a prince, who enjoyed such an eminent degree of knowledge and understanding, and whom God had exalted to the highest pitch of grandeur and magnificence: but God soon made him understand, how fatal his apostasy would prove to him and his posterity; and accordingly, upon his death, the glory of his kingdom was speedily eclipsed by the revolt of the ten tribes and the division of his kingdom.

This civil defection was attended with a spiritual one, for Jeroboam the son of Nebat, who succeeded him in the government of the ten tribes which had revolted (and who himself had probably been initiated in the idolatrous worship of the neighbouring nations, when he took refuge from Solomon's jealousy at the court of Shishak), soon introduced the worship of two golden calves, the one at Dan and the other at Bethel, which he assured them were the gods which had brought them out of Egypt, whence he had himself but lately come. He made choice of Bethel, because it had long been esteemed as a place sacred for the real appearance of God in ancient times to Jacob, and might therefore induce the people to a

readier belief of the residence of the same Deity now; and Dan (as already observed) being at the extremity of the kingdom, was the place whither that part of the country resorted on account of Micah's teraphim. But though Jeroboam thus instituted idolatry more from some reasons of state than from any concern for religion, yet God did not fail to testify his abhorrence of such wicked practices by a miraculous judgment on him. While he was personating the high-priest at Bethel, and burning incense at the feast he had instituted, the altar rent at the word of the prophet, whom God sent out of Judah; and while he stretched out his hand for revenge upon the man of God, it *dried up, so as he could not pull it in again.* (1 Kings xiii. 4, 5.) Now did he, who had but just before threatened the prophet, humbly supplicate a cure from the hand that gave the wound, and a new miracle was immediately wrought for his relief. But this only restored him to the use of his arm, it did not bring back either himself or his people to a sense of their sin, for he died in his idolatry, as did all the kings of Israel after him. Idolatry being thus established in Israel by public authority, and countenanced by all their princes, was universally adopted by the people, notwithstanding all the remonstrances against it by the prophets whom God sent to reclaim them from time to time, and who stood as a barrier against this growing wickedness, regardless of all the persecutions of impious Jezebel, who did what she could, quite to extinguish the worship of the true God. At length this brought a flood of calamities upon that kingdom, and was the source of all the evils with which that people were afterwards afflicted; so that after a continual scene of tragical deaths, civil wars, and judgments of various kinds, they were at length carried away captive by Shalmaneser into Assyria.

The people of Judah were little better. One might justly have expected, that, if there had been no other reason than state policy for preserving the true religion in its native purity, that alone would have been sufficient to prevent any other false worship from being set up, and that the same motives, which induced the ten tribes to establish a strange worship, would have induced Judah to be jealous for the true one. But the event proved otherwise; for notwithstanding the great strength added to the kingdom of Judah, by those who resorted thither out of other tribes for the sake of religion, prosperity inflated Rehoboam and soon ruined him. It is said that he continued but *three years walking in the ways of David and Solomon.* (2 Chron. xi. 17.) After which these idolatrous inclinations began to appear, which probably were instilled into him by his mother Naamah, who was an Ammonitess. (1 Kings xiv. 21.) In short, *he forsook the law of the Lord, and all Israel with him* (2 Chron. xii. 1.), and fell into the grossest idolatry above all that their fathers had done. (1 Kings xiv. 22.) But God soon corrected him and his people, laying deliv'ed them into the hands of Shishak king of Egypt, who with a vast army entered the country, took their cities, and plundered Jerusalem and the temple of all the riches

which David and Solomon had treasured up there. (2 Chron. xii. 2.) However, upon their repentance and humiliation, the anger of Jehovah was soon mitigated; and we do not find that the kingdom of Judah fell into any gross acts of idolatry till the reign of Ahaz, who was the most impious prince that ever sat upon that throne. He was not content *with walking in the ways of the kings of Israel, and making molten images of Baalim* (2 Chron. xxviii. 2.), but he carried his wicked inclinations still farther, and imitated the old inhabitants of the land in cruel and idolatrous practices; for it is said of him *that he burnt incense in the valley of the son of Hinnom, and burnt his children in the fire* (ver. 3.); or, as we read in 2 Kings xvi. 3. *He made his son to pass through the fire, which doubtless was the passing through the fire to Moloch, so expressly prohibited in Levit. xviii. 21.*

For these impieties Ahaz was justly punished by God, and after a constant course of all manner of wickedness, died in the flower of his age; but was happily succeeded by his son Hezekiah, who among other reformations, it is said, *broke in pieces the brazen serpent that Moses had made, to which the children of Israel did burn incense.* (2 Kings xviii. 4.) But Hezekiah's reformation was soon overturned upon the succession of his wicked son Manasseh, who seems to have made it his business to search out what God in his law had forbidden, and to make the practice of it his study; for of him we are informed, *that he built altars for all the host of heaven in the two courts of the house of the Lord, caused his children to pass through the fire, used enchantment and witchcraft, dealt with familiar spirits and wizards, and set a carved image in the house of God.* (2 Chron. xxxiii. 3—8.)

The princes who succeeded (Josiah only excepted) and their people, seem to have lived in a kind of competition with one another in wickedness and idolatry, and to have given a loose to the wildness of their imaginations in the worship of God, which brought upon Judah and her people the utmost fury of God's wrath, and those judgments which had been decreed, and which ended in the captivity of king and people.¹ At length, however, become wiser by the severe discipline they had received, the tribes that returned into their native country from the Babylonian captivity wholly renounced idolatry; and thenceforth uniformly evinced the most deeply-rooted aversion from all strange deities and foreign modes of worship. This great reformation was accomplished by Ezra and Nehemiah, and the eminent men who accompanied or succeeded them; but, in the progress of time, though the exterior of piety was maintained, the "power of godliness" was lost; and we learn from the New Testament, that, during our Saviour's ministry, the Jews were divided into various religious parties, which widely differed in opinion, and pursued each other with the fiercest animosity and with implacable hatred.

¹ Calmet, Commentaire Littéral, tom. vi, pp. 729—735.

Very numerous are the idols mentioned in the Scriptures, particularly in the Old Testament. It is proposed in the following pages of this section to offer, in the first place, a short notice of the idols which were peculiar to the Israelites; and, secondly, of those which they adopted from the Ammonites, Syrians, Phœnicians, Babylonians, and other nations of antiquity.¹

III. IDOLS WORSHIPPED PARTICULARLY BY THE ISRAELITES.— Scarcely, as we have already observed, had the children of Israel been delivered from their cruel bondage in Egypt, when they returned to those idols, to which they had been accustomed.

1. The first object of their idolatrous worship was a *Golden Calf*. (Exod. xxxii. 1—6.) Having been conducted through the wilderness by a pillar of cloud and fire, which preceded them in their marches, while that cloud covered the mountain where Moses was receiving the divine commands, they imagined that it would no longer be their guide; and therefore they applied to Aaron to make for them a sacred sign or symbol, as other nations had, which might visibly represent God to them. With this request Aaron unhappily complied: *the people offered burnt-offerings, and brought peace-offerings, and sat down to eat and to drink, and rose up to play.* The materials of this idol were the golden ear-rings of the people, worn in these eastern countries by men as well as women; and probably they were some of the jewels which they had demanded of the Egyptians. They were cast in a mould by Aaron, and subsequently chiselled into a calf, which is generally supposed to have been an exact resemblance of the celebrated Egyptian deity, Apis, who was worshipped under the form of an ox. This ancient Egyptian superstition is still perpetuated on Mount Libanus, by those Druses who assume the name of Okkals, and who pay divine honours to a *calf*.²

2. In imitation of this were the two *Golden Calves*, made by Jeroboam, the first king of Israel, after the secession of the ten tribes. The Egyptians had two oxen, one of which they worshipped under the name of Apis, at Memphis, the capital of Upper Egypt, and the other under the name of Mnevis, at Hierapolis, the metropolis of Lower Egypt. In like manner, Jeroboam set up one of his calves at Bethel, and the other at Dan. (1 Kings. xii. 28—32.) Like the idolaters in the wilderness, this leader of the rebels proclaimed before the idols upon the feast of their consecration, *These are thy gods, O Israel, which brought thee out of the land of Egypt!* as if he had said, “God is every where in his essence, and cannot be included in any place; he dwells among you here as well as at Jerusalem, and if you require any symbols of his presence, behold here they are in these calves which I have set up!” for they could

¹ The following account of the idols worshipped by the Jews, is abridged principally from Lamy's *Apparatus Bibliæ*, vol. ii. pp. 176—188.; Calmet's *Dissertations* in his *Commentaire Littéral*, tom. i. part II. pp. 178—178. and tom. vii. pp. 745—752.; and his *Dictionary of the Bible* under the several names of the idol deities; Lewis's *Origines Hebrææ*, vol. iii. pp. 1—102.; and Jahn's *Archæologia Biblicæ*, pp. 322—371.

Clarke's *Travels*, vol. iv. p. 204.

not be so stupid as to believe, that the idols taken just before out of the furnace, had been their deliverers so many ages before. It is evident, that the worship of these calves was not regarded by the sacred writers and by the prophets, as an absolute *Pagan* idolatry, but only as a schism, which was indeed very criminal in itself; but did not come up to the degree of a total apostasy; for the history of the revolt of the ten tribes introduces Jeroboam speaking not like a person whose intention was to make the people change their religion, but as representing to them that the true God, being every where, was not confined to any certain place, and therefore they might pay their devotions to him as well in Dan and Bethel as at Jerusalem.

The worship offered before these images, is supposed to have been in imitation of the ceremonies of the Mosaic law; indeed, had it been otherwise, God would have reproached them with it by his prophets, which he no where appears to have done; it is only to be observed, that Jeroboam altered the day of the feast of the seventh month (being the feast of tabernacles), which, instead of celebrating it upon the fifteenth day of the seventh month, he transferred to the fifteenth day of the following month. So he offered upon the altar that he had made in Bethel, the fifteenth day of the eighth month, in the month which he had devised of his own heart, and ordained a feast, and offered upon the altar, and burnt incense. (1 Kings xii. 33.) Had he introduced any other alterations, they would questionless have been mentioned in the history. The sacred writer says, in the month he had devised, but does not say he devised the feast, or ceremonies of the feast, which it is generally believed that he appointed to be celebrated every year at Bethel, in the same manner as the feast of tabernacles was at Jerusalem; but the most forcible argument to prove that he made no alteration in the worship, is the following: Shalmaneser the king of Assyria having carried into captivity the ten tribes, sent into their country a colony of Assyrians and Chaldeans, who carried along with them their idols, and worshipped them; but the king being informed that they were devoured by lions, because they did not worship the God of the country, he commanded one of the priests whom they brought from Samaria to be carried thither, and he dwelt in Bethel, and taught them how they should fear the Lord. This expedient succeeded so well, that the inhabitants were no more a prey to the wild beasts, which is deemed a convincing argument that the Samaritans worshipped the true God, who had put them in possession of that country, and that it was by the same manner of worship they had received from Moses; otherwise this worship could not have been prevailing with God to withdraw the lions from among them.

As most of the priests of the family of Aaron, and the Levites, who had their cities and abodes among the ten revolted tribes, retired into the dominions of the king of Judah, to avoid joining in the schism, which proved a great additional strength to the house

of David; Jeroboam seized their cities and estates, and he eased the people of paying their tithes, there being none to demand them; so he gratified them by making priests out of every tribe and family, even in the extreme part of the country. Thus, as he transferred the kingdom from the house of David, so he removed the priesthood from the family of Aaron, and threw it open, that any man might be admitted to that honourable employment. This raised his popularity, and no doubt, ingratiated him with the Israelites; and it is supposed, that as he had priests, so he had Levites also of the same description; that is, some to serve under the priests as they did; but, in opposition to the established rule, these lower officers always ministered in black vestments. The pontificate and supremacy over this schismatical priesthood, he reserved in his own hands; for the temple which he erected to inclose his calves, and the altars he built for sacrifices, he consecrated himself, and presumed to perform the highest part of the priest's office, viz. the burning of incense. These idols were at length destroyed by the kings of Assyria; the calf in Bethel was carried to Babylon, with other spoils, by Shalmaneser, and the other, in Dan, was seized by Tiglath-Pileser, about ten years before, in the invasion which he made upon Galilee, in which province the city stood.

3. The *Brasen Serpent* was an image of polished brass, in the form of one of those fiery serpents (or serpents whose bite was attended with violent inflammation) which were sent to chastise the murmuring Israelites in the wilderness. By divine command *Moses made a serpent of brass, or copper, and put it upon a pole; and it came to pass that if a serpent had bitten any man, when he beheld the serpent of brass, he lived.* (Numb. xxi. 6—9.) This brasen serpent was preserved as a monument of the divine mercy, but in process of time became an instrument of idolatry. When this superstition began, it is difficult to determine: but the best account is given by the Jewish rabbi, David Kimchi, in the following manner. From the time that the kings of Israel did evil, and the children of Israel followed idolatry, till the reign of Hezekiah, they offered incense to it: for, it being written in the law of Moses *whosoever looketh upon it shall live*, they fancied they might obtain blessings by its mediation, and therefore thought it worthy to be worshipped. It had been kept from the days of Moses, in memory of a miracle, in the same manner as the pot of manna was: and Asa and Jehoshaphat did not extirpate it when they rooted out idolatry, because in their reign they did not observe that the people worshipped this serpent, or burnt incense to it; and therefore they left it as a memorial. But Hezekiah thought fit to take it quite away, when he abolished other idolatry, because in the time of his father, they adored it as an idol; and though pious people among them accounted it only as a memorial of a wonderful work, yet he judged it better to abolish it, though the memory of the miracle should happen to be lost, than suffer it to remain, and leave the Israelites in danger of committing idolatry hereafter with it.

On the subject of the serpent-bitten Israelites being healed by looking at the brasen serpent, there is a good comment in the book of Wisdom, chap. xvi. ver. 4—12. in which are these remarkable words:—“They were admonished, having a sign of salvation, (*i. e.* the brasen serpent) to put them in remembrance of the commandments of thy law. For he that turned himself towards it, was not saved by the THING that he saw, but by THEE that art the saviour of all.” (ver. 6, 7.) To the circumstance of looking at the brasen serpent in order to be healed, our Lord refers (John iii. 14, 15.), *As Moses lifted up the brasen serpent in the wilderness, even so must the Son of man be lifted up, that whosoever believeth in him, should not perish, but have eternal life*: from which words, we may learn

1. That *as* the serpent was lifted up on the pole or *ensign*; so Jesus Christ was lifted up on the cross. 2. That *as* the Israelites were to look at the brasen serpent; so sinners must look to Christ for salvation. 3. That *as* God provided no other remedy than this *looking*, for the wounded Israelites; so he has provided no other way of salvation than *faith* in the blood of his son. 4. That *as* he who looked at the brasen serpent, was *cured* and *did live*; so he that believeth on the Lord Jesus Christ shall *not perish*, but have *eternal life*. 5. That *as* neither the serpent, nor looking at it, but the invisible power of God healed the people; so neither the cross of Christ, nor his merely *being crucified*, but the *pardon he has bought by his blood*, communicated by the *powerful energy of his Spirit*, saves the souls of men. May not all these things be plainly seen in the *circumstances* of this transaction, without making the serpent a type of Jesus Christ (the most exceptionable that could possibly be chosen), and running the parallel, as some have done, through ten or a dozen of particulars?¹

4. In Judg. viii. 24—27. we read that Gideon made an *Ephod* of gold, from the spoils of the Midianites. This ephod is supposed to have been a rich sacerdotal garment, made in imitation of that worn by the high priest at Shiloh. But whether Gideon meant it as a commemorative trophy, or had a Levitical priest in his house, it is difficult to determine. It became however, a snare to all Israel, who dwelt in Gilead, and on the eastern side of the Jordan; who thus having an ephod and worship in their own country, would not so readily go over to the tabernacle at Shiloh, and consequently fell into idolatry, and worshiped the idols of their neighbours the Phœnicians. (Judg. viii. 27. 33.)

5. The *Teraphim*, it appears from 1 Sam. xix. 13., were carved images in a human form, and household deities, like the *penates* and *lares* of the Romans many centuries afterwards (Gen. xxxi. 19. 34, 35. 1 Sam. xix. 13—17.), of which oracular inquiries were made. (Judg. xvii. 5. xviii. 5, 6. 14—20. Zech. x. 2. Hos. iii. 4.) This is

¹ Dr. A. Clarke on Numb. xxi. 9. See also a pleasing and instructive contemplation of Bishop Hall on this subject.

confirmed by 1 Sam. xv. 23. (marginal rendering), where the worship of teraphim is mentioned in conjunction with divination. They appear to have been introduced among the Israelites from Mesopotamia; and continued to be worshipped until the Babylonish captivity.

6. The Jews were accused by the pagans of worshipping the *Head of an Ass*: but from this calumny they have been completely vindicated by M. Schumacher.¹ "APPION, the grammarian, seems to be the author of this slander. He affirmed that the Jews kept the head of an ass in the sanctuary; that it was discovered there when ANTI-UCHUS EPIPHANES took the temple and entered into the most holy place. He added that one ZABIDUS, having secretly got into the temple, carried off the ass's head, and conveyed it to Dora. SUIDAS² says that DAMOCRITUS or DEMOCRITUS the historian averred that the Jews adored the head of an ass, made of gold, &c. PLUTARCH and TACITUS were imposed on by this calumny. They believed that the Hebrews adored an ass, out of gratitude for the discovery of a fountain by one of these creatures in the wilderness, at a time when the army of this nation was parched with thirst and extremely fatigued. Learned men, who have endeavoured to search into the origin of this slander, are divided in their opinions. The reason which PLUTARCH and TACITUS gave for it has nothing in the history of the Jews on which to ground it. TANAQUIL FABER has attempted to prove that this accusation proceeded from the temple in Egypt called *Onion*; as if this name came from *onos*, an ass; which is, indeed, very credible. The report of the Jews worshipping an ass, might originate in Egypt. We know that the Alexandrians hated the Jews, and were much addicted to railery and defamation. But it was extremely easy for them to have known that the temple *Onion*, at Heliopolis, was named from ONIAS, the High-Priest of the Jews, who built it in the reign of PTOLEMY PHILOMETER and CLEOPATRA. Others have asserted that the mistake of the heathen proceeded from an ambiguous mode of reading; as if the Greeks, meaning to say that the Hebrews adored heaven *ouranon*, might in abbreviation write *ounon*; from whence the enemies of the Jews concluded that they worshipped *onos*, an ass. Or, perhaps, reading in Latin authors that they worshipped heaven, *cælum*,

" Nil præter nubes et cæli numen adorant,"

instead of *cælum*, they read *cillum*, an ass, and so reported that the Jews adored this animal. BOCHART is of opinion that the error arose from an expression in Scripture "the mouth of the Lord hath spoken it;" in the Hebrew, *Pi-Jehovah*, or *Pi-Jeo*. Now,

¹ De Cultu Animalium inter Aegyptios et Judæos Commentatio, ex recondita antiquitate illustrata a M. Johann. Heinr. Schumacher. Sect. viii. et seq. (Brunsvigiis, 1773. 4to.)

² In Damocrato et in Juda.

in the Egyptian language, *piea* signifies an ass; the Alexandrian Egyptians hearing the Jews often pronounce this word *piea*, believed that they appealed to their god, and thence inferred that they adored an ass. These explications are ingenious, but not solid. It is doubtful whether any one can assign the true reason for the calumny; which might have arisen from a joke, or an accident. M. LE MOÏNE seems to have succeeded best, who says that in all probability the golden urn containing the manna which was preserved in the sanctuary was taken for the head of an ass; and that the *omer* of manna might have been confounded with the Hebrew *hamor*, which signifies an ass.¹

IV. IDOL GODS OF THE AMMONITES, WORSHIPPED BY THE CHILDREN OF ISRAEL.

1. *Moloch*, also called *Molech*, *Milcom*, or *Melcom*, was the principal idol of the Ammonites (1 Kings xi. 7.), yet not so appropriated to them, but that it was adopted by other neighbouring nations for their god. Some writers have supposed that *Moloch* was the same as Saturn, to whom it is well known that human victims were offered. But he rather appears to have been Baal or the Sun (Jer. xxxii. 35.), and was the *Adrammelech* and *Anammelech* of the Sepharvaites, who burnt their children to them in the fire. There is great reason to think that the Hebrews were addicted to the worship of this deity before their departure from Egypt, since both the prophet Amos (v. 26.) and the protomartyr Stephen (Acts vii. 43.) reproach them with having carried the tabernacle of their god *Moloch* with them in the wilderness. Solomon built a temple to *Moloch* on the Mount of Olives (1 Kings xi. 7.), and his impiety was followed by other kings, his successors, who had apostatised from the worship of Jehovah. The valley of Tophet and Hinnom, on the east of Jerusalem, was the principal scene of the horrid rites performed in honour of *Moloch* (Jer. xix. 5, 6.), who, it is probable, was the same as the Baal, Bel, or Belus of the Carthaginians, Sidonians, Babylonians, and Assyrians.

V. IDOL GODS OF THE CANAANITES OR SYRIANS, WORSHIPPED BY THE ISRAELITES.

1. Mr. Selden, in his elaborate treatise on the Syrian gods², mentions a goddess, whom he terms *Good Fortune*, as the first idol mentioned in the Scriptures, and worshipped by the Hebrews. This opinion is founded on the exclamation of Leah (Gen. xxx. 11.), when her handmaid Zilpah bore a son to Jacob. *She said, I am prosperous* (or as some in the present day, who ascribe every thing to chance, would say -- *Good luck to me*); *and she called his name Gad*, that is, *prosperity*. Although this interpretation has been questioned, yet in Isa. lxx. 11. *Gad* is unquestionably joined

¹ Dr. Harris's Nat. Hist. of the Bible, pp. 24, 25. (American Edit.) or pp. 22, 23. of the London reprint.

² De Diis Syris, Syntag. i. c. 1. (Works, vol. ii. pp. 255, 256.)

with Meni (or the Moon), and both are names of idols, where the prophet says,

Ye have deserted JEHOVAH
And have forgotten my holy mountain;
Who set in order a table for Gad
And fill out a libation to Meni.

Bp. Lowth's Version.

What these objects of idolatrous worship were, it is now impossible exactly to ascertain: it is probable that the latter was an Egyptian deity. Jerome, as cited by bishop Lowth gives an account of the idolatrous practice of the apostate Jews, which is alluded to by the prophet of making a feast, or a *lectisternium*, as the Romans called it, for these pretended deities. "It is," he says, "an antient idolatrous custom in every city in Egypt, and especially in Alexandria, that on the last day of the last month in the year they set out a table with various kinds of dishes, and with a cup filled with a mixture of water, wine, and honey, indicating the fertility of the past or future year. This also the Israelites did."¹

2. *Ahad* or *Achad* is the name of a Syrian deity, under which the sun was worshipped: it is mentioned in Isa. lxvi. 17. where the rites of this god are described.

They who sanctify themselves, and purify themselves
In the gardens, after the rites of Achad;
In the midst of those who eat swine's flesh,
And the abomination, and the field mouse;
Together shall they perish, saith JEHOVAH.

Bp. Lowth's Version.

3. *Baal-peor* (Numb. xxv. 1—5.) was a deity of the Moabites and Midianites, supposed to be the same as the Priapus of the Romans, and worshipped with similar obscene rites. (Compare Hos. ix. 10.) Selden imagined that this idol was the same with Pluto, from Psal. cvi. 28. *They joined themselves unto Baal-peor, and ate the sacrifices of the dead.* But this may mean nothing more than the sacrifices and offerings made to idols, who are properly termed *dead*, in opposition to the true God, the Creator and Preserver of all things, who is in the Scriptures repeatedly and emphatically termed *the living God*. *Chemosh*, the abomination of Moab, to whom Solomon erected an altar on the Mount of Olives (1 Kings xi. 7.), is supposed to have been the same deity as Baal-peor. Servants are known by the name of their lord. As the Israelites were called by the name of the true God (2 Chron. vii. 14.), so the Moabites are called (Numb. xxi. 29.) by the name of their god, *the people of Chemosh*; and other idolatrous nations were designated in a similar manner. (See Mic. iv. 5.)

4. *Rimmon* was an idol of the Syrians, but not worshipped by

¹ Bp. Lowth's Isaiah, vol. ii. p. 375.

the Israelites : it is mentioned in 2 Kings v. 8. and is supposed to have been the same as the Jupiter of the antients.

5. *Ashtaroth* or *Astarte* (Judg. ii. 13. 1 Sam. xxxi. 10. 2 Kings xxiii. 13.) is generally understood to have been the moon ; though in later times this idol became identified with the Syrian Venus ; and was worshipped with impure rites. *Astarte* is still worshipped by the Druses of Mount Libanus.¹

VI. PHœNICIAN IDOLS WORSHIPPED BY THE ISRAELITES.

1. None of the heathen deities, mentioned in the Old Testament, is more celebrated than *Baal*.

The word signifies lord, master, and husband ; a name which doubtless was given to their supreme deity, to him whom they looked upon as the master of men and gods, and of the whole of nature. This name had its original from Phœnicia, *Baal* being a god of the Phœnicians : and Jezebel, daughter of Ethbaal king of the Zidonians, brought this deity from the city of Zidon ; for he was the god of Tyre and Sidon, and was certainly the Ζεὺς of the Greeks, and the Jupiter of the Latins. This god was known under the same name all over Asia ; it is the same as the Bel of the Babylonians ; and the same name and the same god went to the Carthaginians, who were a colony of the Phœnicians : witness the name of Hannibal, Asdrubal, Adherbal, all consisting of Bel or Baal, being the name of the deity of that country, which was according to the custom of the East, where the kings, and great men of the realm added to their own names those of their gods. In short, it seems to be a name common to all idols, to whatever country they belonged ; and when it is mentioned in the holy writings without any explanatory circumstance annexed, it is usually understood to be the principal deity of that nation or place of which the sacred writer was speaking.

This false deity is frequently mentioned in Scripture in the plural number, *Baalim* (1 Sam. vii. 4.), which may either signify, that the name of Baal was given to many different gods, or may imply a plurality of statues consecrated to that idol, and bearing several appellations, according to the difference of places : just as the antient heathens gave many surnames to Jupiter, as Olympian, Dodonæan, and others, according to the names of the places where he was worshipped.

The false gods of Palestine and the neighbouring nations were called Baal in general : but there were other Baals whose name was compounded of some additional word, such as Baal-peor, Baal-berith, Baalzebub, and Baalzephon. The first of these has already been noticed in the preceding page.

2. *Baalberith* was the idol of the Shechemites (Judg. viii. 33.) ; and the temple of this deity was their arsenal and public treasury. As the Hebrew word Berith signifies a covenant or contract, this

god is supposed to have had his appellation from his office, which was to preside over covenants and contracts.

3. *Baalzebub* or *Belzebub* was the god of the *Ekronites* (2 Kings i. 3.), but the origin of the name (which in Hebrew denotes the god of flies) it is difficult to ascertain. As the vicinity of this country was long after infested with minute flies that stung severely all on whom they settled, it is not improbable, that Ekron was infested in a similar manner, and that its inhabitants had a deity whom they supplicated for the prevention or removal of this plague.¹ The Jews, in the time of Christ, called the *prince of the devils* by the name of *Beelzebub*. (Matt. xii. 24. Luke xi. 15.)

4. *Baalzephon* is supposed to have been an idol, erected to guard the confines of the Red Sea, and also the name of a place, where a temple was erected for the use of mariners.

5. *Dagon*, the tutelary deity of the people of Ashdod or Azotus, was the *Derceto* of the heathens. Its name signifies a fish; and its figure is said to have been that of a man from the navel upwards, and that of a fish downwards. It is not improbable that this idol was commemorative of the preservation of Noah in the ark.

6. *Tammuz* or *Thammuz*, though an Egyptian deity, is the same as the *Adonis* of the Phœnicians and Syrians. For this idol the Jewish women are said to have sat weeping before the north gate of the temple. (Ezek. viii. 14.) Lucian² has given an account of the rites of this deity, which illustrates the allusion of the prophet. "I saw," says he, "at Biblis, the great temple of Venus, in which are annually celebrated the mysteries of Adonis in which I am initiated; for it is said, that he was killed in the country by a wild boar, and in perpetual remembrance of this event, a public mourning is solemnised every year with doleful lamentations; then follows a funeral as of a dead body, and next day is celebrated his resurrection, for it is said, he flew up into heaven: one of the ceremonies is for women to have their heads shaved in the same manner as the Egyptians at the death of Apis. Those who refuse to be shaved are obliged to prostitute themselves a whole day to strangers, and the money which they thus acquire is consecrated to the goddess. But some of the Biblians say, that all those ceremonies are observed for Osiris, and that he is buried in their country, not in Egypt. In order to which there comes yearly a head made of papyrus, brought by sea, from Egypt to Biblis, and I myself have seen it." Procopius, in his commentary on Isaiah, more particularly explains this rite, and observes that the inhabitants of Alexandria annually prepare a pot in which they put a letter directed to the women of Biblis, by which they are informed that Adonis is found again. This pot being sealed up, they commit it to the sea, after performing some ceremonies over it, and command it to depart: accordingly, the vessel immediately

¹ See Harmer's Observations, vol. iii. pp. 323—325.

² In his treatise *Dè Deâ Syriâ*. Op. tom. ix. pp. 89—91. edit. Bipont.

steers its course to *Biblis*, where it puts an end to the women's mourning.

This *Syrian Venus* had a temple upon the top of this mountain, which was built out of the way in a by-place, in the midst of a wood; it was demolished by the emperor *Constantine*; who put an end to all the filthy ceremonies which had been performed in it. The image of this goddess, according to *Macrobius*², represented a woman in mourning covered with a veil, having a dejected countenance, and tears seeming to run down her face.

1. The *Baithylia* or *Consecrated Stones*, adored by the early Phœnicians, are supposed to have been the most antient objects of idolatrous worship; and probably were afterwards formed into beautiful statues, when the art of sculpture became tolerably perfected. They originated in *Jacob's* setting up and anointing with oil the stone which he had used for a pillow, as a memorial of the heavenly vision with which he had been favoured (*Gen. xxviii. 18.*), and also to serve as a token to point out to him the place when *God* should bring him back again. The idolatrous unction of stones, consecrating them to the memory of great men, and worshipping them after their death, must have prevailed to a great extent in the time of *Moses*, who therefore prohibited the Israelites from erecting them. (*Levit. xxvi. 1.*) The practice of setting up stones as a guide to travellers, still exists in *Persia* and other parts of the *East*.³

VII. IDOLS WORSHIPPED IN SAMARIA DURING THE CAPTIVITY.

The deities noticed in the preceding pages are the chief idols antiently adored in *Palestine*; but there were other false gods worshipped there, which were imported into *Samaria*, after *Shalmaneser* had carried the ten tribes into captivity, by the colony of foreigners which he sent to occupy their country. These men brought their idols with them. The men of *Babylon* had their *Succoth-benoth*, which was the *Babylonish Melitta*, in honour of whom young women prostituted themselves. The men of *Cuth* or *Cutha* brought their *Nergal*, or the sun; it was represented by a cock, which animal was dedicated to *Apollo* or the sun. The men of *Hamath* had

¹ Eusebius de *Laudibus Constantini*, pp. 736, 737. edit. Reading.

² *Saturnalia*, lib. l. c. 21.

³ In the course of Mr. *Morier's* journey in the interior of that country, he remarked that his old guide "every here and there placed a stone on a conspicuous bit of rock, or two stones one upon the other, at the same time uttering some words which" (says this intelligent traveller,) "I learnt were a prayer for our safe return. This explained to me, what I had frequently seen before in the East, and particularly on a high road leading to a great town, whence the town is first seen, and where the eastern traveller sees up his stone, accompanied by a devout exclamation, as it were, in token of his safe arrival. The action of our guide appears to illustrate the vow which *Jacob* made when he travelled to *Padan-Aram*. (*Gen. xxviii. 18—22.*) In seeing a stone on the road placed in this position, or one stone upon another, it implies that some traveller has there made a vow or a thanksgiving. Nothing is so natural in a journey over a dreary country, as for a solitary traveller to set himself down fatigued, and to make the vow that *Jacob* did: — *If God will be with me, and keep me in the way that I go, and will give me bread to eat and raiment to put on, so that I reach my father's house in peace, &c. then I will give so much in charity:* — Or, again, that on first seeing the place which he has so long toiled to reach, the traveller should sit down and make a thanksgiving: "In both cases setting up a stone as a memorial." *Morier's Second Journey*, p. 84.

Ashima ; a deity of which nothing certain is known. The rabbinical writers say, that it was compounded of a man and a goat ; consequently it answered to the Pan of the Greek and Roman mythology. The people of *Sephorvaim* brought *Adrammelech* and *Anammelech*, already noticed. The *Avites* brought *Nibhaz* and *Tartak*, which Mr. Selden conjectures with great probability, to be two different names of the same idol. As *Nibhaz* in Hebrew and Chaldee, signifies *quick, swift, rapid* ; and *Tartak*, in both languages, denotes a chariot, M. Jurieu is of opinion, that these two idols together, may mean the sun mounted on his car, as it is well known that the poets and mythologists represented that luminary.

In Levit. xxvi. 1. Moses prohibits the Israelites from setting up any *image of stone*, literally, *figured stone* or *stone of a picture*, in their land. This prohibition was directed against the hieroglyphic figures or stones of the Egyptians, the meaning of which was known only to the priests. With these stones idolatry was practised. In Egypt they were regarded as the god *Thoth*, the god of sciences ; and so late as the time of Ezekiel (viii. 8—11.) we find an imitation of this species of idolatry common among the Jews. According, therefore, to that fundamental principle of the Mosaic policy, which dictated the prevention of idolatry, it became absolutely necessary to prohibit stones with hieroglyphic inscriptions. Besides, in an age when so great a propensity to idolatry prevailed, stones, with figures upon them which the people could not understand, would have been a temptation to idolatry, even though they had not been deified (as we know they actually were) by the Egyptians.¹ The walls of the antient temples, particularly that of Tentyra, and also the tombs of the kings in Egypt, are covered with such hieroglyphics ; which it is impossible to see and not be struck with the necessity of the injunction contained in Deut. iv. 15—20.²

VIII. The idols mentioned in the New Testament are doubtless known to every classical reader. It will, therefore, briefly suffice to state here, that Jupiter was the supreme deity, or father of the gods, among the Greeks and Romans ; Mercury was the god of eloquence, and the messenger of the other deities.³ The inhabitants of Lystra, in Lycaonia, struck with the miracle which had been wrought by St. Paul, considered him as Mercury, from his eloquence, and Barnabas as Jupiter, probably (as Chrysostom conjectures) from his being the more majestic person of the two, and consequently answering to the prevalent notions which they had imbibed from statues concerning him. The Diana of the Greeks and Romans was worshipped with most solemnity at Ephesus, where she is said to have been represented as a woman, whose upper part was hung round with breasts, emblematic of the prolific powers of nature. Her image is said to have fallen down from Jupiter (Acts xix. 35.) ; but it was probably an *aërolite* or *atmo-*

¹ Michaelis's Commentaries, vol. iv. pp. 54—59.

² Jowett's Christian Researches in the Mediterranean, pp. 132, 134.

spheric stone. This notion of certain statues having descended on earth from the clouds, to represent particular divinities and to inspire devotion in their temples, was very common in the Heathen world. The palladium at Troy, and the statue of Minerva at Athens, like this of the Ephesian Diana, is said to have dropped from the skies. The avarice of priests forged these stories to dupe and fleece a blind and bigotted people. The same ridiculous tale the Romans were taught to believe concerning their *Ancilia*, or sacred shields, which their history represents to have fallen from heaven in the reign of Numa Pompilius.¹

The Romans, also, it is well known, worshipped the virtues and affections of the mind, as *Justice, Fidelity, or Good Faith, Hope, Fortune, Fame, &c.*; and the same superstition prevailed among the inhabitants of Malta, on which island Paul was shipwrecked. When they saw a venomous serpent fasten on the hand of Paul, they concluded that he was a murderer, whom *vengeance* — more correctly the goddess Δίκη (*Diké* or Vindictive Justice) *had not permitted to live.* (Acts xxviii. 4.) We learn from the mythological poet Hesiod, that the Greeks had a female deity of this name.² Nay, the superstition of the Pagans went so far as to worship the gods and goddesses of all countries, even those which they knew not. Thus there was at Athens, an altar consecrated to the gods and goddesses of Europe, Asia, Libya, and *to the unknown God*; which gave St. Paul occasion to deliver that admirable discourse in the Areopagus, which is related in Acts xvii. 23—31.

IX. Very numerous are the allusions in the sacred writings to the idolatrous rites of the heathen, and to their persuasions concerning their power and influence. A few only of these can be here noticed.

1. The heathens had generally a notion, that all deities were local, and limited to a certain country or place, and had no power any where else but in that country or place; and thus we read in 2 Kings xvii. 26. that the colonists sent by the king of Assyria to Samaria in place of the Israelites, attributed their being plagued with lions to their not knowing the manner of the god of the land. In conformity with this notion, Jonah (who lived in the midst of the mixed multitude of Gentiles that had forced themselves into the district of Galilee, with their various forms of worship) seems to have considered Jehovah as the local god of Judaea; and, in order to escape from his presence, *he rose up to flee unto Tarshish, and went down to Joppa.* (Jonah i. 3.) So also in 1 Kings x. 23. it is said that the servants of the king of Syria persuaded their master, that the gods of the Israelites were gods of the hills, hearing perhaps

¹ The instances above stated are to be found in Herodian, lib. i. p. 26. (Oxon. 1678); Dionysius Halicarn. lib. ii. pp. 122. 125. (Oxon. 1704); Apollodorus, lib. iii. p. 207. (Paris, 1675); Conon's Narrations, p. 247. (Paris, 1675); Pausanias, lib. i. p. 68. (Lipsie, 1696); Euripidis Iphigenia in Tauris, v. 86. 97. 968. 1384. Plutarch in Numa, Vit. tom. i. pp. 148. 149. (Lond. 1729); and Ovid's Fasti, lib. iii. 373. See also Dr. Clarke's Travels, vol. vii. pp. 21, 22.

² Opera et Dies, v. 254—255.

that the law was given on Mount Sinai, that the temple was built on Mount Sion, and that they delighted to worship on high places, and therefore they imagined that they would have the advantage by fighting the Israelites in the plain. It is not unlikely that such of the Israelites who were murmurers in the wilderness (being those among them who were most tainted with idolatry) were of this principle with the heathens, and believed that God was a local deity and his power limited: for in this manner it is that the psalmist represents them reasoning with themselves, *Can God furnish a table in the wilderness? Behold he smote the rock that the waters gushed out, and the streams overflowed, but can he give bread also? Can he provide flesh for his people?* (Psal. lxxviii. 19, 20.)

Another common opinion which prevailed among the heathens, was, that sometimes the immortal gods, disguised in human form¹, deigned to visit mortals. According to their theology, Jupiter and Mercury accompanied each other on these expeditions. Agreeably to this notion, which universally obtained among the Pagans, we find that the Lycaonians, when they saw a miracle performed upon a helpless cripple, immediately cried out in the last astonishment: — *The gods are come down unto us in the likeness of men!* (Acts xiv. 11.)² Instantly Paul and Barnabas were metamorphosed, by their imaginations, into Jove and Mercury, who, according to their creed, were inseparable companions³ in these visits. These heathens (as we have already intimated) recognised Jupiter in Barnabas, because, probably, his appearance and person were more specious and striking; and Paul, whose bodily presence was weak, but whose public talents and rhetoric were distinguished, they persuaded themselves could be no other than Mercury⁴ the eloquent interpreter of the gods.

Further, when persons were wrongfully oppressed and afflicted, the heathens believed that the gods interfered in their behalf. The tokens of their presence were *earthquakes, the opening of doors, and the loosing of their bonds.*⁵ In this manner God bore a miraculous

¹ Summo delabor Olympo.

Et deus humanâ lustrò sub imagine terras. Ovid. Met. i. 212.

² This notion was agreeable to the heathen mythology. In fabulis sæpe videtis fieri, ut Deus aliquis delapsus à cœlo coetus hominum adeat, versetur in terris, cum hominibus adeat, versetur in terris, cum hominibus colloquatur. — Cicero de Harusp. resp. 28. p. 480. edit. Schrevelii. 4to.

Μορφη δ' αμειψας εκ Θεου θρονησιαν,

Πάρεμι Διρκης ναμαρ', Ισμηριου δ' ἰδιαρ. Euripidis Bacchæ. ver. 41.

Θανέτω θνητοῖς δαίμων, ὃν τιτεται Διὶ. Ibid. ver. 42.

Μορφη δ' ἐμην μετεβαλον εἰς ἀνδρὸς φουσιν. Ibid. ver. 54.

³ Jupiter huc, specie mortali, cunctique parente,

Venit: Atlantides, positis caducifer alis. Ovid. Met. viii. 626.

Jupiter et lato qui regnat in æquore frater,

Carpebant socias Mercuriusque vias. Ovid. Fast. lib. v. 495.

⁴ Mercuri. τερμινδὲ νέπος Atlantis. Forat. 1. lib. 1. ode 10. 1. Ἑρμοῦ — λογιωτάτου θεῶν ἀπαγωγῶν. Luciani Gallus, p. 180. tom. 2. edit. Grævii.

⁵ Elsner, in his notes on Acts xvi. 26. has shewn, by a series of most apposite quotations, that each of these things was accounted a token of the divine appearance in behalf of those who suffer unjustly, and who were dear to the gods. — Observations Sacrae, vol. i. pp. 441—444.

testimony of his approbation to his faithful servants Paul and Silas, when imprisoned at Philippi; and the knowledge of this fact will account for the extreme fright of the gaoler, which terminated so happily for his salvation. (Acts xvi. 25—29.)

2. Although the priesthood constituted a distinct class of persons among the Jews, yet among the Romans, and it should seem also among the Greeks, they did not form a separate order. Among the Romans they were chosen from among the most honourable men in the state. Of this description were the *Asiarchs* mentioned in Acts xix. 31., to whom the public games of Asia Minor were confided: and from Paul being hurried before them by the Ephesian populace, it is generally understood that, at that very time they were solemnising games¹ in honour of Diana, who was one of the great celestial deities (the *dii majorum gentium* of the Romans), and who was therefore called the GREAT GODDESS, by the recorder or town clerk of Ephesus. (Acts xix. 35.)² All the eastern provinces of the Roman empire had officers similar to these Asiarchs, who from their respective districts were called *Syriarchs* (*Συριαρχαί*), *Phœniciarchs* (*Φοινικιαρχαί*), and the like.

3. We learn from various profane authors that *High Places*, or eminences, were considered to be the abode of the heathen deities, or at least as the most proper for sacrificing; and therefore sacrifices were offered either on the summits of mountains or in woods. Thus it was the custom of the antient Persians, to go up to the tops of the loftiest mountains, and there to offer sacrifices to Jupiter, — distinguishing by that appellation the whole expanse of heaven.³ Further, as most of these sacrifices were accompanied with prostitution, or other impure rites, they seem to have chosen the most retired spots, to conceal their abominations. On this account, and also to obliterate every vestige of, or temptation to, idolatry, the Israelites were commanded to offer sacrifices to Jehovah, only and exclusively in the place which he should appoint (Deut. xii. 14.); and were also prohibited from sacrificing in *high places* (Levit. xxvi. 30.), and from placing *a grove of trees*⁴ near his altar. (Deut. xvi. 21.) The profligate Manasseh, however, utterly disregarded these prohibitions, when he *built up again the high places, and reared up altars for Baal, and made a grove.* (2 Kings xxi. 3.) Thus Isaiah (lvii. 4, 5.) reproached the Israelites with the like prevarication, when he said, *Are ye not children of transgression, a seed of falsehood, inflaming yourselves with idols under every green tree, slaying the children in the vallies under the clefts of the rocks?* And Jeremiah (iii. 6.) reproaches them with having played the harlot, that is, worshipped idols, on every high mountain, and under every green tree.

¹ Grotius, Hammond, Poole's Synopsis, Wetstein, and Doddridge on Acts xix. 31.

² See Elsner's *Observationes Sacrae* vol. i. pp. 460, 461.

³ Herodotus, lib. i. c. 131.

⁴ In Sir William Ouseley's *Travels in the East* (vol. i. pp. 359—401.), the reader will find a very learned and very interesting memoir on the *sacred trees* of the antients, which illustrates many important passages of sacred writ.

Nor were only mountains, woods, and vallies, appointed for the worship of false gods: almost every thing else, among the Pagans, bore the marks of idolatry. Herodotus says, that the Phoenicians, who were the greatest seamen in the world, adorned the heads and sterns of their ships with the images of their gods: and Luke (Acts xxviii. 11.) has observed, that the vessel which carried St. Paul from Malta to Syracuse, had the sign of Castor and Pollux; and it is not improbable, that the vessel in which Europa was carried away, had the sign of a bull, which gave occasion to the poets to say, that Jupiter carried her away under that shape.

4. The statues of the deities were carried in procession, on the shoulders of their votaries. This circumstance is distinctly stated by Isaiah, in his masterly exposure of the insanity of idolatry. (xlvi. 7.) In this way do the Hindoos at present carry their gods: and indeed, so exact a picture has the prophet drawn of the idolatrous processions of this people, that he might be almost supposed to be sitting among them, when he delivered his prediction to the Jews.¹ It was also customary to make *shrines* or portable models of the temples of those deities which were the principal objects of worship. Demetrius and his craftsmen made silver models of the temple of Diana at Ephesus (Acts xix. 24.), which would doubtless be in great request, and perhaps become a kind of substitute for the temple itself to such of her votaries as lived in distant parts of Greece. The tabernacle of Moloch (Amos v. 26.) is supposed to have been a portable temple or shrine, made after the chief temple of that "horrid king," as Milton emphatically terms him.²

When the heathens offered a sacrifice to any of those numerous divinities which they worshipped, it was usual on this sacred solemnity, in which religion and friendship were harmoniously interwoven and united with each other, for all the sacrificers to have their temples adorned with chaplets of flowers,—and the victim too that was led to the altar, were dressed with fillets and garlands. Abundant examples of this custom are found in almost every page of the Greek and Roman classics. The Lycæonians, who recognised Jupiter in Barnabas, and Mercury in Paul, and, believing themselves honoured with a visit from these divinities, from the miracle which Paul had wrought in restoring a cripple to the full use of his limbs, intended to shew their veneration of this illustrious condescension to them by celebrating a public and solemn sacrifice, and decked themselves, and the victims they intended to immolate, in this manner.³ The priest, therefore, of Jove, whom it seems they worshipped as the guardian of their city, and whose temple stood a little way⁴ out of the town, immediately brought victims and chap-

¹ Ward's History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. ii. p. 390.

² See Dr. Clarke's Travels, vol. vi. pp. 215—218., for some curious information concerning the portable shrines of the antients.

³ Acts xiv. 13. Then the priest of Jupiter, which was before their city, brought oxen and garlands, and the gates, and would have done sacrifice unto the people.

⁴ Προ της πόλεως. Ibid. Το ΠΡΟ ΤΗΣ ΠΟΛΕΩΣ Αρκαλημπερ. The temple of

lets of flowers to crown the Apostles, agreeably to the Pagan rites, —and in this manner advanced towards the door of the house, where the apostles lodged, designing to sacrifice to them. This custom, here mentioned, was in conformity with the heathen ritual. All wore garlands at a heathen sacrifice, both the people and the victims.¹

Singing and dancing were the general attendants of some of these idolatrous rites: thus, the Israelites danced before the golden calf. (Exod. xxxii. 19.) To this day, dancing before the idol takes place at almost every Hindoo idolatrous feast. But their sacrifices were not confined to irrational victims: it is well known that the practice of offering human victims prevailed to a great extent²; and among the Ammonites and Phœnicians they were immolated to propitiate Moloch and Baal; and children were in some manner dedicated and devoted to them. The idolatrous worshippers are said to make them pass through the fire; denoting some rite of dedication and purification. This was most expressly forbidden to the Israelites. (Levit. xviii. 21.) In this manner Ahaz devoted his son (2 Kings xvi. 3.): but as Hezekiah afterwards succeeded his father on the throne of Judah, it is evident that *he* was not put to death. From the declarations of the psalmist (cvi. 36—40.), and of the prophet Ezekiel (xvi. 21. xx. 26. 31.), it is, however, certain that many human victims were thus barbarously sacrificed.

The adoration or worship which idolaters paid to their gods did not consist barely in the sacrifices which they offered to them, but likewise in prostrations and bowings of the body; thus Naaman speaks of *bowing in the house* of Rimmon. (2 Kings v. 18.) It was also a religious ceremony, to *lift up the hand to the mouth and kiss it*, and then, stretching it out, to throw as it were the kiss to the idol: both this and the former ceremony are mentioned in 1 Kings xix. 18. And so Job, in order to express his not having fallen into idolatry, very elegantly says, *If I beheld the sun while it shined, or the moon walking in brightness, and my heart hath been secretly enticed,*

Æsculapius which was before the town, or a little way out of the city. Polybius, lib. i. p. 17. edit. Hanov. 1619.

¹ Data sunt capiti genitalia sacra. Ovid. Met. lib. xiii. ver. 929. Στεμματ' ἔχων ἐν χερσὶν ἐκθύβουλον Ἀπολλῶνος. Iliad. i. 14. Dr. Harwood's Introduction, vol. ii. p. 301. Wetstein and Dr. A. Clarke on Acts xiv. 11—15.

² The Egyptians had several cities, which were termed *Typhonian*,—such as Heliopolis, Idithya, Abarei, and Busiris,—where at particular seasons they immolated men. The objects thus devoted were persons of bright hair and a particular complexion, such as were seldom to be found among that people. Hence we may conclude that they were foreigners; and it is probable that while the Israelites resided in Egypt, the victims were chosen from their body. They were burnt alive upon a high altar, and thus sacrificed for the good of the people: at the conclusion of the sacrifice, the priests collected their ashes, and scattered them upwards in the air,—most likely with this view, that, where any of the dust was wafted, a blessing might be entailed. By a just retribution, Moses and Aaron were commanded to take ashes of the furnace (which in the Scriptures is used as a type of the slavery of the Israelites, and of all the cruelty which they experienced in Egypt), and to scatter them abroad *towards the heaven* (Exod. x. 8, 9.), but with a different intention, viz. that where any the smallest portion alighted, it might prove a plague and a curse to the ungrateful, cruel, and infatuated Egyptians. Thus there was a designed contrast in these workings of Providence, and an apparent opposition to the superstition of the times. Bryant, on the Plagues of Egypt, p. 116: On the prevalence of human sacrifices in ancient times, see Vol. I. p. 6. and note.

or my mouth hath kissed my hand, &c. (Job xxxi. 26, 27.); for to *kiss* and to *worship* are synonymous terms in Scripture, as appears from Psal. ii. 12. There is an idolatrous rite mentioned by Ezekiel, called the *putting the branch to the nose* (Ezek. viii. 17.), by which interpreters say is meant, that the worshipper, with a wand in his hand, touched the idol, and then applied the wand to his nose and mouth, in token of worship and adoration. There appears to be this difference, however, between the idolatry of the Jews and that of other nations, viz. that the Jews did not deny a divine power and providence; only they imagined that their idols were the intermediate causes, by which the blessings of the supreme God might be conveyed to them: whereas the heathens believed the idols they worshipped were true gods, and had no higher conceptions, having no notion of one eternal, almighty, and independent Being.¹

In the account of the decisive triumph of true religion over idolatry, related in 1 Kings xviii., we have a very striking delineation of the idolatrous rites of Baal; from which it appears that his four hundred and fifty priests, or prophets as they are termed, employed the whole day in their desperate rites. The time is divided into two periods, 1. *From morning until noon*, which was occupied in preparing and offering the sacrifice, and in earnest supplication for the celestial fire (for Baal was unquestionably the god of fire or the sun, and had only to work in his own element), vociferating *O Baal, hear us* (1 Kings xviii. 26.); and, 2. *They continued from noon until the time of offering evening sacrifice*, (the time when it was usually offered to Jehovah in the temple at Jerusalem,) performing their frantic rites.

*They leaped up and down at the altar*², that is, they danced around it with strange and hideous cries and gesticulations, tossing their heads to and fro, with great variety of bodily contortions, precisely as the Ceylonese do to this day.³ In like manner the priests of Mars among the Romans danced and leaped around the altars of that divinity, from which circumstance they derived their name, — *Salii*.⁴ And it came to pass at noon that *Elijah mocked them*; had not the intrepid prophet of the Lord been conscious of the divine protection, he certainly would not have used such freedom of speech, while he was surrounded by his enemies: *And said, Cry aloud! Oblige him, by your vociferations, to attend to your suit.* — Similar

¹ On the subject of the idolatrous worship of the heathens, the editor of Calmet's Dictionary has accumulated much interesting information. See the *Fragments*, particularly Nos. 107. 185. 212, 213.

² This is the marginal rendering, and most correct, of 1 Kings xviii. 26.

³ From the statement of a Ceylonese convert to Christianity (who was formerly one of the principal high priests of Budhoo) Dr. A. Clarke has described the manner and invocations of the pagan inhabitants of that island (Comment. on 1 Kings xviii.); and his account is confirmed by Dr. John Davy, in his *Travels in Ceylon*.

⁴ *Jam dederat Salis* (a salis nomina ducunt).

Armaque et ad certos verba canenda modos. — Ovin, *Fast.* iii. 387, 388.

On the custom of dancing around the altars of the gods, the reader will find much curious information in Lomeier's *Treatise De veterum Gentilium Lustrationibus*, cap. 33.

vain repetitions were made by the heathen in the time of our Saviour, who cautions his disciples against them in Matt. vi. 7. ¹ — *For he is a god*—the supreme God; you worship him as such; and doubtless he is jealous of his own honour, and the credit of his votaries. *Either he is talking*—he may be giving audience to some others: or, as it is rendered in the margin of our larger bibles, — *he meditateth*—he is in a profound reverie, projecting some god-like scheme — *or he is pursuing*—taking his pleasure in the chase — *or he is on a journey*, having left his audience chamber, he is making some excursions — *or peradventure he sleepeth and must be awaked*.—Absurd as these notions may appear to us, they are believed by the Hindoos, to each of whose gods some particular business is assigned, and who imagine that Vishnoo sleeps for months in the year, while others of their deities are often out on journies or expeditions.² Accordingly the priests of Baal *cried aloud, and cut themselves after their manner*. This was not only the custom of the idolatrous Israelites, but also of the Syrians, Persians, Indians, Greeks, Romans, and in short of all the antient heathen world. Hence we may see the reason why the Israelites were forbidden to *cut themselves, to make any cuttings in their flesh for the dead, and to print any marks upon themselves*. (Deut. xiv. 1. Levit. xix. 28.) For the heathens did these things not only in honour of their Gods, but also in testimony of their grief for the loss of any of their neighbours. The Scythians, as we are informed by Herodotus, were accustomed to slash their arms on the death of their kings³; and it is not improbable that some similar custom obtained among some one of the neighbouring nations. The modern Persians to this day cut and lacerate themselves, when celebrating the anniversary of the assassination of Hossein, whom they venerate as a martyr for the Moslem faith.⁴

5. The heathens shewed their veneration for their deities in various ways, the knowledge of which serves to illustrate many passages of Scripture. Thus nothing was more frequent than prostitution of women, with examples of which the antient writers abound. According to Justin⁵, the Cyprian women gained that portion which their husbands received with them, on marriage, by previous

¹ Not to multiply unnecessary examples, see an illustration of these vain repetitions in the *Heautontimorumenos* of Terence, act v. scene 1. We are informed by Servius that the antient heathens, after supplicating the particular deity to whom they offered sacrifice, used to invoke all the gods and goddesses, lest any one of them should be adverse to the suppliant. Servius, in Virgil. Georg. lib. i. 21. (vol. i. p. 178. of Burmann's edition, Amst. 1746. 4to.)

² Ward's History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. ii. p. 324.

³ Herodotus, lib. iv. c. 71.

⁴ Mr. Morier has given a long and interesting narrative of this anniversary. "It is," he says, "necessary to have witnessed the scenes that are exhibited in their cities, to judge of the degree of fanaticism which possesses them at this time. I have seen some of the most violent of them, as they vociferated *Ya Hossein* / walk about the streets almost naked with only their loins covered and their bodies streaming with blood, by the voluntary cuts which they had given to themselves, either as acts of love, anguish, or mortification. Such must have been the cuttings of which we read in Holy Writ." Morier's Second Journey, p. 176.

⁵ Hist. lib. xviii. c. 5.

public prostitution. And the Phœnicians, as we are informed by Augustine, made a gift to Venus of the gain acquired by the same disgusting means.¹ Hence we may account for Moses prohibiting the Israelites from committing any such atrocities. (Levit. xix. 29.)—Others dedicated to them the spoils of war; others votive tablets and other offerings in commemoration of supposed benefits conferred on them.²

A more frequent and indeed very general custom was the carrying of marks on their body in honour of the object of their worship. This is expressly forbidden in Levit. xix. 28. To this day, all the castes of the Hindoos bear on their foreheads, or elsewhere, what are called the *sectarian marks*, which not only distinguish them in a civil, but also in a religious point of view, from each other.³ Most of the barbarous nations lately discovered, have their faces, arms, breasts, &c. curiously carved or *tattooed*, probably for superstitious purposes. Antient writers abound with accounts of marks made on the face, arms, &c. in honour of different idols,—and to this the inspired penman alludes (Rev. xiii. 16, 17. xiv. 9. 11. xv. 2. xvi. 2. xix. 20. xx. 4.), where false worshippers are represented as receiving in their hands, and in their forehead, the marks of the beast.

The prohibition in Levit. xix. 27. against the Israelites rounding *the corners of their heads*, and *marring the corners of their beards*, evidently refers to customs which must have existed among the Egyptians during their residence among that people; though it is now difficult to determine what those customs were. Herodotus informs us, that the Arabs shave or *cut their hair round* in honour of Bacchus, who (they say) wore his hair in this way; and that the Macians, a people of Lybia, cut their hair *round*, so as to leave a tuft on the top of the head⁴; in this manner the Chinese cut their hair to the present day. This might have been in honour of some idol, and therefore forbidden to the Israelites.

The *hair* was much used in divination among the antients; and for purposes of religious superstition among the Greeks; and particularly about the time of the giving of this law, as this is supposed to have been the æra of the Trojan war. We learn from Homer, that it was customary for parents to dedicate the hair of their children to some god; which, when they came to manhood, they cut off and consecrated to the deity. Achilles, at the funeral of Patroclus, cut off his golden locks, which his father had dedicated to the river god Sperchius, and threw them into the flood.⁵

¹ Calmet on Levit. xix. 29. Michaelis's Commentaries, vol. iv. pp. 185—185.

² See much curious information on this subject in Dr. Clarke's Travels, vol. vi. pp. 444—448. 8vo.; and Mr. Dodwell's Classical Tour in Greece, vol. i. pp. 341, 342.

³ See Forbes's Oriental Memoirs vol. iii. p. 15.

⁴ Herod. lib. iii. c. 8. and lib. iv. c. 175.

Σπας ἀπανευθε πυρς ξανθὴν ἀπέκειρατο χαίτην,
τὴν ὅα Σπέρχιο ποταμὸν τρέφε τηλεδωσαν·
ὅχλῳ γὰρ ὁ ἀρα εἶπεν, ἰδὼν ἐπὶ οἶνοπα ποταμῷ,
Σπέρχην, ὅπως σοι γε ποτὴρ ᾔρησατο Πηλεὺς. &c. τ. λ.

Iliad, xxiii. 142, &c.

But that Achilles stands apart in prayer,
And from his head divides the yellow hair.

From Virgil's account of the death of Dido¹, we learn that the *topmost lock of hair*, was dedicated to the *infernal gods*.

If the hair was *rounded*, and dedicated for purposes of this kind, it will at once account for the prohibition in this verse.²

A religion so extravagant as that of paganism could not have subsisted so long, had not the priests by whom it was managed contrived to secure the devotion of the multitudes by pretending that certain divinities uttered oracles. The researches of enlightened travellers have laid open the contrivances by which these frauds were managed, at least in Greece.³ Various were the means by which the credulity of the people was imposed upon. Sometimes they charmed serpents,—extracted their poison and thus rendered them harmless;—a practice to which there are frequent allusions in the Old Testament, and it must have been a gainful and an established traffic. Moses has enumerated seven different sorts of diviners into futurity, whom the Israelites were prohibited from consulting (Deut. xviii. 10, 11.), viz. 1. Those who *used divination*,—that is, who endeavoured to penetrate futurity by auguries, using lots, &c.;—2. *Observers of times*, those who pretended to foretell future events by present occurrences, and who predicted political or physical changes from the aspects of the planets, eclipses, motion of the clouds, &c.;—3. *Enchanters*, either those who charmed serpents, or those who drew auguries from inspecting the entrails of beasts, observing the flights of birds, &c.;—4. *Witches*, those who pretended to bring down certain celestial influences to their aid by means of herbs, drugs, perfumes, &c.;—5. *Charmers*, those who used spells for the purposes of divination;—6. *Consulters with familiar spirits*,—Pythonesses, those who pretended to enquire by means of one spirit to get oracular answers from another of a supe-

Those curling locks which from his youth he vow'd
And sacred grew to Sperchius' honour'd flood.
Then sighing, to the deep his looks he cast,
And roll'd his eyes around the watery waste.
Sperchius! whose waves in mazy errors lost,
Delightful roll along my native coast!
To whom we vainly vow'd at our return,
These locks to fall, and hecatombs to burn —
So vow'd my father, but he vow'd in vain,
No more Achilles sees his native plain;
In that vain hope, these hairs no longer grow;
Patroclus bears them to the shades below.

POPE.

¹ *Nondum illi flavum I. aserpina vertice crinem
Abstulerat, Stygioque cupi damnaceret orco—*
Hunc ego Diti

Sacrum jussa fero: teque isto corpore solvo.
Sic ait, et dextra crinem secut. Æneid. iv. 698.

The sisters had not cut the topmost hair,
Which Proserpine and they can only know,
Nor made her sacred to the shades below —
This offering to the infernal gods I bear;
Thus while she spoke, she cut the fatal hair.

DRYDEN.

² Calmet, and Dr. A. Clarke on Levit. xix. 27.

³ See Dr. Clarke's Travels, vol. i. pp. 479, 480.; also vol. iii. p. 298.

rior order;—and, 7. *Wizards, or necromancers*, those who (like the witch at Endor) professed to evoke the dead, in order to learn from them the secrets of the invisible world.

Four kinds of divination are particularly mentioned in sacred history, viz. by the cup,—by arrows,—by inspecting the livers of slaughtered animals,—and by the staff.

1. *Divination by the cup* appears to have been the most antient: it certainly prevailed in Egypt in the time of Joseph (Gen. xlv. 5.)¹ and it has from time immemorial been prevalent among the Asiatics, who have a tradition (the origin of which is lost in the lapse of ages) that there was a cup which had passed successively into the hands of different potentates, and which possessed the strange property of representing in it the whole world and all the things which were then doing in it. The Persians to this day call it the *Cup of Jem-sheed*, from a very antient king of Persia of that name, whom late historians and poets have confounded with Bacchus, Solomon, Alexander the Great, &c. This cup, filled with the elixir of immortality, they say, was discovered when digging the foundations of Persepolis. To this cup the Persian poets have numerous allusions; and to the intelligence supposed to have been received from it, they ascribe the great prosperity of their antient monarchs, as by it they understood all events, past, present, and future. Many of the Mohammedan princes and governors affect still to have information of futurity by means of a cup. Thus when Mr. Norden was at Dehr or Derri in the farthest part of Egypt, in a very dangerous situation, from which he and his company endeavoured to extricate themselves by exerting great spirit, a spiteful and powerful Arab in a threatening way told one of their people, whom they had sent to him, that he knew what sort of people they were, that *he had consulted his cup*, and had found by it that they were those of whom one of their prophets had said, that Franks would come in disguise, and passing every where, examine the state of the country, and afterwards bring over a great number of other Franks, conquer the country, and exterminate all.² It was precisely the same thing that Joseph meant when he talked of *divining by his cup*.³

Julius Serenus tells us, that the method of *divining by the cup* among the Abyssinians, Chaldees, and Egyptians, was to fill it first with water, then to throw into it their plates of gold and silver, together with some precious stones, whereon were engraven certain characters: and, after that, the persons who came to consult the oracle used certain forms of incantation, and so calling upon the devil, received their answers several ways; sometimes by articulate sounds, sometimes by the characters, which were in the cup, arising upon the surface of the water, and by his arrangement forming the answer;

¹ A. We have no reason to infer that Joseph practised divination by the cup; although, according to the superstition of those times, supernatural influence might be attributed to his cup. And as the whole transaction related in Gen. xlv. was merely intended to prove his innocence for a short time, he might as well affect divination by his cup, as not to believe that they had stolen it.

and many times by the visible appearing of the persons themselves about whom the oracle was consulted. Cornelius Agrippa¹ tells us likewise, that the manner of some was to pour melted wax into a cup containing water, which wax would range itself into order, and so form answers, according to the questions proposed.²

2. *Divination by arrows* was an antient method of presaging future events. Ezekiel (xxi. 21.) informs us that Nebuchadnezzar, when marching against Zedekiah and the king of the Ammonites, and coming to the head of two ways, mingled his arrows in a quiver, that he might thence divine in what direction to pursue his march; and that he consulted teraphim, and inspected the livers of beasts, in order to determine his resolution. Jerome, in his commentary on this passage, says that "the manner of divining by arrows was thus: They wrote on several arrows the names of the cities against which they intended to make war, and then putting them promiscuously all together into a quiver, they caused them to be drawn out in the manner of lots, and that city, whose name was on the arrow first drawn out, was the first they assaulted."³ This method of divination was practised by the idolatrous Arabs, and prohibited by Mohammed⁴, and was likewise used by the antient Greeks and other nations.⁵

3. *Divination by inspecting the liver* of slaughtered animals was another mode of ascertaining future events, much practised by the Greeks and Romans, by the former of whom it was termed *Ἡπατοσκοπία*, or *looking into the liver*. This word subsequently became a general term for divination by inspecting the entrails of sacrifices, because the liver was the first and principal part observed for this purpose. To this method of divination there is an allusion in Ezekiel xxi. 21.⁶

¹ De occult. Philos. l. i. cap. 57.

² Dr. A. Clarke on Gen. xlv. 5. Burder's Oriental Customs, vol. i. p. 54.

³ On this subject see some curious information in the Fragments supplementary to Calmet, No. 179.

⁴ Koran, ch. v. 4. (Sale's Translation, p. 94. 4to. edit.) In his preliminary discourse, Mr. Sale states that the arrows, used by the idolatrous Arabs for this purpose, were destitute of heads or feathers, and were kept in the temple of some idol, in whose presence they were consulted. Seven such arrows were kept in the temple of Mecca, but generally in divination they made use of three only, on one of which was written *My Lord hath commanded me*, — on another, *My Lord hath forbidden me*, — and the third was blank. If the first was drawn, they regarded it as an approbation of the enterprise in question; if the second, they made a contrary conclusion; but if the third happened to be drawn, they mixed them and drew over again, till a decisive answer was given by one of the others. These divining arrows were generally consulted before any thing of moment was undertaken — as when a man was about to marry, to undertake a journey, or the like. (Sale's Pref. Disc. pp. 126, 127.)

⁵ Potter's Antiquities of Greece, vol. i. pp. 359, 360.

⁶ Ibid. vol. i. pp. 339, 340. The practice of "divination from the liver is very old, and was practised by the Greeks and Romans, till Christianity banished it, together with the gods of Olympus. In Æschylus, Prometheus boasts of having taught man the division of the entrails, if smooth, and of a clear colour, to be agreeable to the gods; also the various forms of the gall and the liver." (Stolberg's History of Religion, vol. iii. p. 436.) Among the Greeks and Romans, as soon as a victim was sacrificed, the entrails were examined. They began with the liver, which was considered the chief seat; or, as Philostratus expresses himself (Life of Apollonius, viii. 7. § 15.), as the prophesying tripod.

4. *Rabdomancy*, or divination by the staff, is alluded to by the prophet Hosea (iv. 12.); it is supposed to have been thus performed; The person consulting measured his staff by spans, or by the length of his finger, saying, as he measured, "I will go, or, I will not go; I will do such a thing, or, I will not do it;" and as the last span fell out so he determined. Cyril and Theophylact, however, give a different account of the matter. They say that it was performed by erecting two sticks, after which they murmured forth a certain charm, and then, according as the sticks fell, backwards or forwards, towards the right or left, they gave advice in any affair.¹

SECTION II.

ACCOUNT OF THE JEWISH SECTS MENTIONED IN THE NEW TESTAMENT.

I. *The Sadducees*. — II. *The Pharisees*. — III. *The Essenes*. — IV. *The Scribes and Lawyers*. — V. *The Samaritans*. — VI. *The Herodians*. — VII. *The Galileans and Zealots*. — VIII. *The Sicarii*.

I. **THE** sect of the **SADDUCEES** derived its name from Sadok, a pupil of Antigonus Sochus, president of the sanhedrin or great council; who flourished about two hundred and sixty years before the Christian era, and who inculcated the reasonableness of serving God disinterestedly, and not under the servile impulse of the fear of punishment, or the mercenary hope of reward. Sadok, misunderstanding the doctrine of his master, deduced the inference that there was no future state of rewards or punishments. Their principal tenets were the following: 1. *That there is no resurrection, neither angel nor spirit* (Matt. xxii. 23. Acts xxiii. 8.), and that the soul of man perishes together with the body.² 2. That there is no fate or overruling providence, but that all men enjoy the most ample freedom of action; in other words, the absolute power of doing either good or evil, according to their own³ choice; hence they were very severe judges.⁴ 3. They paid no regard whatever to any tradition, adhering strictly to the letter of Scripture, but preferring the five books of Moses to the rest. It has been conjectured by some writers that they rejected all the sacred books but those of

all divination. If it had a fine, natural, red colour; if it was healthy, and without spots; if it was large and double; if the lobes turned outwards; they promised themselves the best success in their undertakings; but it portended evil if the liver was dry, or had a band between the parts, or had no lobes. It was also considered an unfortunate omen if the liver was injured by a cut, or killed the victim. (*Modern History of the Roman Antiquities*, vol. ii. p. 164.) Rosenmüller. *Burder's Oriental Literature*, vol. ii. p. 185.

¹ Selden de diis Syris, cap. li. p. 28. Godwin's History of Aaron, p. 216. Pococke and Newcome, in the *Enter's Antiquities of Greece*, vol. i. p. 359. (Edinb. 1804.)

Josephus de Bell. Jud. lib. i. c. 8. in fine. Ant. Jud. lib. xviii. c. i. § 4.

Id. Ant. Jud. lib. xiii. c. 5. § 9. De Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. 8. § 4.

Id. Ant. Jud. lib. xviii. c. 10. § 6. lib. xviii. c. i. § 4.

Moses, because Jesus Christ preferred to confute them out of these. But this hypothesis is no proof; for, though Josephus frequently mentions their rejecting the traditions of the elders, he nowhere charges them with rejecting any of the sacred books; and, as he was himself a Pharisee, and their zealous antagonist, he would not have passed over such a crime in silence. It is further worthy of remark, that our Saviour who so severely censured the Sadducees for their other corruptions, did not condemn them for such rejection.¹

In point of numbers, the Sadducees were an inconsiderable sect; but their numerical deficiency was amply compensated by the dignity and eminence of those who embraced their tenets, and who were persons of the first distinction. Several of them were advanced to the high priesthood.² They do not however appear to have aspired, generally, to public offices. Josephus affirms that scarcely any business of the state was transacted by them; and that, when they were in the magistracy, they generally conformed to the measures of the Pharisees, though unwillingly, and out of pure necessity; for otherwise they would not have been endured by the multitude.³

II. The PHARISEES were the most numerous, distinguished, and popular sect among the Jews; the time when they first appeared is not known, but it is supposed to have been not long after the institution of the Sadducees, if indeed the two sects did not gradually spring up together. They derived their name from the Hebrew word *Pharash*, which signifies *separated*, or *set apart*, because they separated themselves from the rest of the Jews to superior strictness in religious observances. They boasted that, from their accurate knowledge of religion, they were the favourites of heaven⁴; and thus, trusting in themselves that they were righteous, despised others. (Luke xi. 52. xviii. 9. 11.) Among the tenets inculcated by this sect, we may enumerate the following, viz.

They ascribed all things to fate or providence, yet not so absolutely as to take away the free-will of man, though fate does not co-operate in every action.⁵ They also believed in the existence of angels and spirits, and in the resurrection of the dead (Acts xxiii. 8.): but, from the account given of them by Josephus, it appears that their notion of the immortality of the soul was the Pythagorean metempsychosis⁶; that the soul, after the dissolution of one body, winged its flight into another; and that these removals were perpetuated and diversified through an infinite succession, the soul

Reader will find several additional proofs in confirmation of the preceding account of the Sadducees, in Dr. Jortin's Remarks on Eccl. Hist. Appendix, No. II. vol. ii. p. 4. Edit. 1805.

¹ Acts v. 17. Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xiii. c. 10. § 6. 7. lib. xviii. c. 1 § 4.

² Ant. Jud. lib. xiii. c. 1. § 1.

⁴ Ibid. lib. xvii. c. 2. § 4.

⁵ Ibid. lib. xiii. c. 1. § 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29. 30. 31. 32. 33. 34. 35. 36. 37. 38. 39.

⁶ Josephus Ant. Jud. lib. xviii. c. 1. § 3. De Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. 8. § 14. lib. iii. c. 5. The author of the Book of Wisdom (ch. viii. 20.) seems to allude to the same doctrine, when he tells us, that, being good, he came into a body undefiled.

animating a sound and healthy body, or being confined in a deformed and diseased frame, according to its conduct in a prior state of existence. From the Pharisees, whose tenets and traditions the people generally received, it is evident that the disciples of our Lord had adopted this philosophical doctrine of the transmigration of souls; when having met a man who had been *barn* blind, they asked him whether it were the sins of this man in a pre-existent state which had caused the Sovereign Disposer to inflict upon him this punishment. To this inquiry Christ replied, that neither his vices or sins in a pre-existent state, nor those of his parents, were the cause of this calamity. (John ix. 1—4.) From this notion, derived from the Greek philosophy, we find that during our Saviour's public ministry, the Jews speculated variously concerning him, and indulged several conjectures, which of the antient prophets it was whose soul now animated him, and performed such astonishing miracles. Some contended that it was the soul of Elias; others of Jeremiah; while others, less sanguine, only declared in general terms that it must be the soul of one of the old prophets by which these mighty deeds were now wrought. (Matt. xvi. 14: Luke ix. 19.)¹

Lastly, the Pharisees contended that God was in strict justice bound to bless the Jews, and make them all partakers of the *terrestrial* kingdom of the Messiah, to justify them, to make them eternally happy, and that he could not possibly damn any one of them! The ground of their justification they derived from the merits of Abraham, from their knowledge of God, from their practising the rite of circumcision, and from the sacrifices they offered. And as they conceived works to be meritorious, they had invented a great number of *supererogatory* ones, to which they attached greater merit than to the observance of the law itself. To this notion St. Paul has some allusions in those parts of his Epistle to the Romans, in which he combats the erroneous suppositions of the Jews.²

The Pharisees were the strictest of the three principal sects that divided the Jewish nation (Acts xxvi. 5.), and affected a singular probity of manners according to their system, which however was for the most part both lax and corrupt. Thus, many things which Moses had *tolerated* in civil life, in order to avoid a greater evil, the Pharisees determined to be morally right; for instance, the law of retaliation, and that of divorce from a wife for *any* cause. (Matt. v. 31. et seq. xix. 3—12.) During the time of Christ, there were two celebrated philosophical and divinity schools among the Jews, that of Schammai and that of Hillel. On the question of divorce,

¹ Dr. Lightfoot's Works, vol. ii. p. 555. Dr. Harwood's Intro. to the New Test. vol. ii. p. 355. To this popular notion of a transmigration of souls, Dr. H. ascribes the alarm of Herod, who had caused John the Baptist to be beheaded, when the fame of Christ's miracles reached his court; but on comparing Matt. xvi. 6. with Mark viii. 15., it appears that Herod was a Sadducee, and consequently disbelieved a future state. His alarm, therefore, is rather to be attributed to the force of conscience which haunted his guilty mind in despite of his libertine principles.

² See Rom. i. 20. Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xvii. c. 2. § 4. De Bell. Jud. lib. ii.

the school of Schammai maintained, that no man could legally put away his wife except for adultery: the school of Hillel, on the contrary, allowed of divorce for *any* cause (from Deut. xxiv. 1.), even if the wife found no favour in the eyes of her husband, — in other words, if he saw any woman who pleased him better. The practice of the Jews seems to have gone with the school of Hillel. Thus, we read (in Eccles. xxv. 26.) “If she go not as thou wouldest have her, cut her off from thy flesh; give her a bill of divorce and let her go:” and in conformity with this doctrine, Josephus¹, who was a Pharisee, relates that he repudiated his wife who had borne him three children, because he was not pleased with her manners or behaviour!

Further, they interpreted certain of the Mosaic laws most literally, and distorted their meaning so as to favour their own philosophical system. Thus, the law of loving their neighbour, they expounded solely of the love of their friends, that is, of the whole Jewish race; all other persons being considered by them as natural enemies (Matt. v. 43. compared with Luke x. 31—33.), whom they were in no respect bound to assist. Dr. Lightfoot has cited a striking illustration of this passage from Maimonides.² An oath, in which the name of God was not distinctly specified, they taught was not binding (Matt. v. 33.), maintaining that a man might even swear with his lips, and at the same moment annul it in his heart! So rigorously did they understand the command of observing the sabbath day, that they accounted it unlawful to pluck ears of corn, and heal the sick, &c. (Matt. xii. 1. et seq. Luke vi. 6. et seq. xiv. 1. et seq.) Those natural laws which Moses did not sanction by any penalty, they accounted among the petty commandments, inferior to the ceremonial laws, which they preferred to the former as being the weightier matters of the law (Matt. v. 19. xv. 4. xxiii. 23.), to the total neglect of mercy and fidelity. Hence they accounted causeless anger and impure desires as trifles of no moment (Matt. v. 21, 22. 27—30.); they compassed sea and land to make proselytes³ to the Jewish religion from among the Gentiles, that they might rule over their consciences and wealth: and these proselytes, through the influence of their own scandalous examples and characters, they soon rendered more profligate and abandoned than ever they were

¹ Life of himself, § 76. Grotius, Calmet, Drs. Lightfoot, Whithy, Doddridge, and A. Clarke, (on Matt. v. 30, et seq. and Matt. xix. 3. et seq.) have all given illustrations of the Jewish doctrine of divorce from rabbinical writers. See also Selden's *Uxor Hebraica*, lib. iii. c. 22. (Op. tom. ii. col. 782—786.)

² “A Jew sees a Gentile fall into the sea, written, ‘Thou shalt not rise up against the neighbour.’” Works, vol. ii. p. 152.

³ Justin Martyr bears witness to the Pharisees against the name of Christ, at the proselytes,” says he to Trypho the Jew (p. 4) blaspheme his name with twofold more violence than the Jews themselves. They are ready to shew their malicious zeal against us, and, to obtain merit in your eyes, wish to us reproach, and torment, and death.” See further Dr. Ireland's *Paganism and Christianity* compared, pp. 21—23.

by no means lift him out: for it is his neighbour.’ But this is not thy

ity of the proselytes of the of the second century. “Your only do not believe in Christ, but in yourselves. They are ready to

before their conversion. (Matt. xxiii. 15.) Esteeming temporal happiness and riches as the highest good, they scrupled not to accumulate wealth by every means, legal or illegal (Matt. v. 1—12. xxiii. 4. Luke xvi. 14. James ii. 1—8.); vain and ambitious of popular applause, they offered up long prayers¹ in public places, but not without a self-sufficiency of their own holiness (Matt. vi. 2—5. Luke xviii. 11.); under a sanctimonious appearance of respect for the memories of the prophets whom their ancestors had slain, they repaired and beautified their sepulchres (Matt. xxiii. 29.); and such was their idea of their own sanctity, that they thought themselves defiled if they but touched or conversed with *sinner*s, that is, with publicans or tax-gatherers, and persons of loose and irregular lives. (Luke vii. 39. xv. 1. et seq.)

But, above all their other tenets, the Pharisees were conspicuous for their reverential observance of the traditions or decrees of the elders: these traditions, they pretended, had been handed down from Moses through every generation, but were not committed to writing; and they were not merely considered as of equal authority with the divine law, but even preferable to it. “The words of the Scribes,” said they, “are lovely above the words of the law: for the words of the law are weighty and light, but the words of the scribes are ALL weighty.”² Among the traditions thus sanctimoniously observed by the Pharisees, we may briefly notice the following: 1. *The washing of hands* up to the wrist before and after meat (Matt. xv. 2. Mark vii. 3.), which they accounted not merely a religious duty, but considered its omission as a crime equal to fornication, and punishable by excommunication. 2. *The purification* of the cups, vessels, and couches used at their meals by ablutions or washings (Mark vii. 4.); for which purpose the six large water-pots mentioned by St. John (ii. 6.) were destined. But these ablutions are not to be confounded with those symbolical washings mentioned in Psal. xxvi. 6. and Matt. xxvii. 24. 3. *Their fasting twice a week* with great appearance of austerity (Luke xviii. 12. Matt. vi. 16.); thus converting that exercise into religion which is only a help towards the performance of its hallowed duties. The Jewish days of fasting were the second and fifth days of the week, corresponding with our Mondays and Thursdays: on one of these days they commemorated Moses going up to the mount to receive the law, which according to their traditions, was on the fifth day or Thursday; and on the other, his descent after he had received the two tables,

¹ Bucher, after a very autient Hebrew manuscript ritual, has given a long and curious specimen of the “vain repetitions” used by the Pharisees. See his *Antiquitates Biblicæ ex Novo Testamento selectæ*, pp. 240—244. Vitembergæ, 1729. 4to.

² Jerusalem, Berachoth, fol. 3. 2. cited by Dr. Lightfoot on Matt. xv. (Works, ii. p. 199.) The whole of his Hebrew and Talmudical Exercitations on that chapter is singularly instructive. The collection of these traditions, by which the Jews made the law of God of none effect, is termed the Talmud: of which, and of its use in illustrating the Holy Scriptures, an account has already been given. On the traditions of the modern Jews (which illustrate very many passages of the New Testament,) the reader may consult *Alien's Modern Judaism*, chap. viii. to xv. pp. 110—280.

which they supposed to have been on the second day or Monday. 4. *Their punctilious payment of tithes* (temple-offerings), even of the most trifling thing. (Luke xviii. 12. Matt. xxiii. 23.) 5. *Their wearing broader phylacteries and larger fringes* to their garments than the rest of the Jews. (Matt. xxiii. 5.) These phylacteries were pieces of parchment or the dressed skin of some clean animal, inscribed with four paragraphs of the law, taken from Exod. xiii. 1—10. and xiii. 11—16. Deut. vi. 4—9. and xi. 13—21. all inclusive; which the Pharisees, interpreting literally (as do the modern rabbins) Deut. vi. 8. and other similar passages, tied to the fronts of their caps and on their arms. The *fringe* was ordered by Moses, as we read in Numb. xv. 38, 39. He therefore, who wore his phylactery and his fringe of the largest size, was reputed to be the most devout.¹

With all their pretensions to piety, the Pharisees entertained the most sovereign contempt for the people; whom, being ignorant of the law, they pronounced to be accursed. (John vii. 49.) Yet such was the esteem and veneration in which they were held by the people, that they may almost be said to have given what direction they pleased to public affairs: and hence the great men dreaded their power and authority. It is unquestionable, as Mosheim has well remarked, that the religion of the Pharisees was, for the most part, founded in consummate hypocrisy; and that, at the bottom, they were generally the slaves of every vicious appetite, proud, arrogant, and avaricious, consulting only the gratification of their lusts, even at the very moment when they professed themselves to be engaged in the service of their Maker. These odious features in the character of the Pharisees caused them to be reprehended by our Saviour with the utmost severity, even more than he rebuked the Sadducees; who, although they had departed widely from the genuine principles of religion, yet did not impose on mankind by a pretended sanctity, or devote themselves with insatiable greediness to the acquisition of honours and riches.²

III. The *ESSENES*, who were the third principal sect among the Jews, differed in many respects from the Pharisees and Sadducees, both in doctrines and in practice. They were divided into two classes: 1. The *practical*, who lived in society, and some of whom were married, though it appears with much circumspection. These dwelt in cities and their neighbourhoods, and applied themselves to husbandry and other innocent occupations. 2. The *contemplative* Essenes, who were also called Therapeutæ or Physicians, from their application principally to the cure of the diseases of the soul, devoted themselves wholly to meditation, and avoided living in great towns as unfavourable to a contemplative life. But both classes were exceedingly abstemious, exemplary in their moral deportment, averse from profane swearing, and most rigid in their

¹ On the phylacteries and fringes of the modern Jews, Mr. Allen has collected much curious information. *Modern Judaism*, pp. 304—318.

² Mosheim's *Commentaries on the Affairs of Christians*, vol. i. p. 83.

observance of the sabbath. They held, among other tenets, the immortality of the soul (though they denied the resurrection of the body), the existence of angels, and a state of future rewards and punishments. They believed every thing to be ordered by an eternal fatality or chain of causes. Although Jesus Christ censured all the other sects of the Jews for their vices, yet he never spoke of the Essenes; neither are they mentioned by name in any part of the New Testament. The silence of the evangelical historians concerning them, is by some accounted for by their eremitic life, which secluded them from places of public resort; so that they did not come in the way of our Saviour, as the Pharisees and Sadducees often did. Others, however, are of opinion, that the Essenes being very honest and sincere, without guile or hypocrisy, gave no room for the reproofs and censures which the other Jews deserved; and therefore no mention is made of them.

But though the Essenes are not expressly named in any of the sacred books, it has been conjectured that they are alluded to in two or three passages. Thus, those whom our Lord terms eunuchs, who have made themselves such for the kingdom of heaven's sake (Matt. xix. 12.), are supposed to be the contemplative Essenes, who abstained from all intercourse with women, in the hope of acquiring a greater degree of purity, and becoming the better fitted for the kingdom of God. St. Paul is generally understood to have referred to them, in Col. ii. 18. 23.; where "voluntary humility" and "neglecting the body," are peculiarly applicable to the Essenes; who, when they received any persons into their number, made them solemnly swear that they would keep and observe the books of the sect and the names of the angels with care¹. What is also said in the above-cited passage, of "intruding into things not seen," is likewise agreeable to the character of the Therapeutic Essenes; who, placing the excellence of their contemplative life in raising their minds to invisible objects, pretended to such a degree of elevation and abstraction, as to be able to penetrate into the nature of angels, and assign them proper names, or rightly interpret those already given them; and also to pry into futurity and predict future events. On these accounts it is highly probable that they were "vainly puffed up by their fleshly mind." Further, the tenets referred to by St. Paul (Col. ii. 21. "touch not, taste not, handle not,") are such as the Essenes held, who would not taste any pleasant food, but lived on coarse bread and drank nothing but water, and some of whom would not taste any food at all till after sun-set: if touched by any that were not of their own sect, they would wash themselves, as after some great pollution. It has been conjectured that there might be a sodality of Essenes at Colosse, as there were in many other places out of Judæa; and that some of the Christians, being too much inclined to Judaism, might also affect the peculiarities of

¹ Josephus, de Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. 8. § 7.

this sect; which might be the reason of the apostle's so particularly cautioning the Colossians against them.¹

IV. There is in the Gospels frequent mention of a set of men called SCRIBES and LAWYERS, who are often joined with the chief priests, elders, and Pharisees. They seem to have been men of learning, and on that account to have had great deference paid to them (Matt. ii. 4. vii. 29.); but strictly speaking, they did not form any distinct sect. The SCRIBES generally belonged to the sect of the Pharisees, in whose traditions and explanations of the law they were profoundly skilled; and on the Sabbath days "they sat in Moses' seat" and instructed the people. Originally, they had their name from their employment, which at first was *transcribing* the law: but in progress of time they exalted themselves into the public ministry and became teachers of it, authoritatively determining what doctrines were or were not contained in the Scriptures, and teaching the common people in what sense to understand the law and the prophets. In short, they were the oracles which were consulted in all difficult points of doctrine and duty.

LAWYERS (*νομικοί*, *teachers of the law*) and scribes appear to be synonymous terms, importing one and the same order of men; as St. Matt. (xxii. 35.) calls him a lawyer whom St. Mark (xii. 28.) terms one of the scribes. Dr. Macknight conjectures the scribes to have been the public expounders of the law, and that the lawyers studied it in private: perhaps, as Dr. Lardner conjectures, they taught in the schools.²

V. The SAMARITANS, mentioned in the New Testament, are generally considered as a sect of the Jews; their origin and history have already been related, together with their antipathy to the Jews. Their principal residence is at Sichem or Shechem, now called *Napolose*, or *Nablous*, where they have one synagogue. In 1823, there were between twenty and thirty houses, and about sixty males paid the capitation tax to the Mohammedan government.³ They celebrated divine service every Saturday. Formerly they went four times a year in solemn procession, to the old synagogue on Mount Gerizim: and on these occasions they ascended before sun-rise, and read the law till noon; but of late years they have not been allowed to do this. The Samaritans have one school in Napolose, where

¹ Jennings's *Jewish Antiquities*, book i. c. 12. p. 243. (Edinb. 1818.) Michaelis thinks that Saint Paul alludes to the tenets and practices of the Essenes in his Epistle to the Ephesians, and in his first Epistle to Timothy. *Introductio ad Novum Testamentum*, vol. iv. pp. 79—85. Dr. Prideaux has collected with great industry and fidelity all that Philo, Josephus, and Pliny have recorded concerning the Essenes. *Connexion*, vol. ii. book v. sub anno 107. B. C. pp. 344—363. 8th edit.

² Prideaux, vol. ii. p. 343. Lardner's *Credibility*, part i. book i. ch. iv. § 3, (Works, vol. i. p. 126.) Macknight's *Harmony*, sect. 87. vol. ii. p. 74, (2d edit. 4to.) The scribes noticed in the Old Testament, it may not be irrelevant to remark, were political officers of great weight and authority; it being their employment to assist the kings or magistrates, and to keep an account in writing of public acts or occurrences of the royal revenues, and the muster rolls of the army. (2 Sam. vii. 17. 1 Chron. xiv. 6. 1 Kings iv. 3. 2 Kings xix. 2. xxii. 8—10, 2 Chron. xxvi. 11.)

³ Jowett's *Christian Researches in Syria*, p. 195.

their language is taught. The head of this sect is stated to reside at Paris.¹ The Samaritans at Napolose are in possession of a very antient manuscript Pentateuch, which they assert to be nearly 3500 years old; but they reject the vowel points, as a rabbinical invention. In order to complete our notice of this sect, we have subjoined their confession of faith, sent in the sixteenth century by Eleazar their high priest to the illustrious critic Scaliger, who had applied to them for that purpose; together with a few additional particulars from the Baron de Sacy's Memoir on the Samaritans, and the Rev. W. Jowett's Christian Researches in Syria.²

1. The Samaritans observe the sabbath with all the exactness required in Exodus; for not one of them goes out of the place where he is on the sabbath-day, except to the synagogue, where they read the law, and sing the praises of God. They do not lie that night with their wives, and neither kindle nor order fire to be kindled: whereas the Jews transgress the sabbath in all these points; for they go out of town, have fire made, lie with their wives, and even do not wash themselves after it.—2. They hold the passover to be their first festival; they begin at sun-set, by the sacrifice enjoined for that purpose in Exodus; but they sacrifice *only* on Mount Gerizim, where they read the law, and offer prayers to God, after which the priest dismisses the whole congregation with a blessing. [Of late years, however, having been prohibited from ascending Mount Gerizim by their oppressors the Turks, they offer the paschal sacrifice within their city, which they consider to be within the precincts of the sacred place.]—3. They celebrate for seven days together the feast of the harvest, but they do not agree with the Jews concerning the day when it ought to begin; for these reckon the next day after the solemnity of the passover; whereas the Samaritans reckon fifty days, beginning the next day after the sabbath which happens in the week of the unleavened bread, and the next day after the seventh sabbath following, the feast of the harvest begins.—4. They observe the fast of expiation on the tenth of the seventh month: they employ the four and twenty hours of the day in prayers to God, and singing his praises, and fasting. All fast, except children at the breast, whereas the Jews except children under seven years of age.—5. On the fifteenth of the same month, they celebrate the feast of tabernacles.—6. They never defer circumcision beyond the eighth day, as it is cominanded in Genesis, whereas the Jews defer it sometimes longer.—7. They are obliged to wash themselves in the morning, when they have lain with their wives, or have been sullied in the night by some uncleanness; and all

¹ Visit of the Rev. James Connor, in 1819 and 1820, to Candia, Rhodes, Cyprus, and various parts of Syria and Palestine annexed to the Rev. W. Jowett's Christian Researches in the Mediterranean, p. 422.

² Mémoire sur l'Etat actuel des Samaritains, par M. Silvestre de Sacy. Paris, 1812. 8vo. Jowett's Christian Researches in Syria, pp. 196—198. See also Joan. Christoph. Friedrich, *Dissertatio de Christianis Samaritanorum Liber. Accedit Appendiculus de Columba Samaritanorum*. Lipsiæ, 1821. 8vo.

vessels, that may become unclean, become defiled when they touch them before they have washed.—8. They take away the fat from sacrifices, and give the priests the shoulder, the jaws, and the belly.—9. They never marry their nieces as the Jews do, and have but one wife, whereas the Jews may have many.—10. They believe in God, in Moses, and in Mount Gerizim. Whereas, say they, the Jews put their trust in others, we do nothing but what is expressly commanded in the law by the Lord who made use of the ministry of Moses; but the Jews swerve from what the Lord hath commanded in the law, to observe what their fathers and doctors have invented.—11. They receive the Torah or Pentateuch, and hold it as their only sacred book; they reverence the books of Joshua and Judges, but do not account them sacred in the same manner as the Torah, considering Joshua not to have been a prophet, but only the disciple of a prophet, that is, of Moses.—12. They expect a prophet, whom they term Hathab; but, say they, “there is a great mystery in regard to Hathab, who is yet to come. We shall be happy when he comes.” When the Rev. Mr. Jowett, in November 1823, interrogated the officiating Samaritan priest concerning their expectation of a Messiah, the latter replied that they were all in expectation of him;—“that the Messiah would be a man, not the Son of God,—and that this” (Napolose) “was to be the place which he would make the metropolis of his kingdom: this was the place, of which the Lord had promised, he would place his name there.” The report of the Samaritans worshipping a dove is groundless; nor is it true that they deny the resurrection of the dead, or the existence of angels. They admit, however, that they recite hymns and prayers that Jehovah would pardon the dead, and the priest purifies them by prayer.

The Samaritans have a catalogue of the succession of their high priests from Aaron to the present time. They believe themselves to be of the posterity of Joseph by Ephraim, and that all their high priests descended from Phinehas; whereas the Jews have not one of that family. They boast that they have preserved the Hebrew characters which God made use of to promulgate his law; while the Jews have a way of writing from Ezra, which is cursed for ever. And indeed, instead of looking upon Ezra as the restorer of the law, they curse him as an impostor, who has laid aside their old characters to use new ones in their room, and authorised several books that were written to support the posterity of David.

Several attempts have been made to convert these Samaritans; but they have been oppressed instead of being made Christians, and they are reduced to a small number rather by misery than by the multitude of those who have been converted. Nay, they seem more stubbornly wedded to their sect than the Jews, though these adhere rigorously to the law of Moses. At least Nikon, who lived after the twelfth century, when setting down the formalities used at the reception of heretics, observes, that if a Jew had a mind to be converted, in order to avoid punishment or the payment of what he

owed, he was to purify himself, and satisfy his creditors before he was admitted. But the Samaritans were not received before they had been instructed two years, and were required to fast ten or fifteen days before they professed the Christian religion, to attend at morning and evening prayers, and to learn some psalms; others were not used with so much rigour. The term of two years which was enjoined to the Samaritan proselytes, is an argument that they were suspected, and the reason why they were so was, that they had often deceived the Christians by their pretended conversion.¹

VI. The HERODIANS were rather a political faction than a religious sect of the Jews; they derived their name from Herod the Great, king of Judæa, to whose family they were strongly attached. They were distinguished from the other Jewish sects, first, by their concurring in Herod's plan of subjecting himself and his people to the dominion of the Romans; and secondly, in complying with the latter in many of their heathen practices, such as erecting temples with images for idolatrous worship, raising statues, and instituting games in honour of Augustus; which symbolising with idolatry upon views of interest and worldly policy is supposed to have been a part at least of the leaven of Herod, against which Jesus Christ cautioned his disciples (Mark viii. 15.); consequently they were directly opposed to the Pharisees, who, from a misinterpretation of Deut. xvii. 15. maintained that it was not lawful to submit to the Roman emperor, or to pay taxes to him. But Herod and his followers, understanding the text to exclude only a voluntary choice, and not a necessary submission where force had overpowered choice, held an opinion directly contrary, and insisted that in this case it was lawful both to submit to the Roman emperor, and also to pay taxes to him. How keen then must have been the malice of the Pharisees against Christ, when they united with their mortal enemies the Herodians, in proposing to him the ensnaring question, whether it was lawful to give tribute to Cæsar or not? (Matt. xxii. 16.) If our Redeemer had answered in the negative, the Herodians would have accused him to the Roman power as a seditious person; and if in the affirmative, the Pharisees were equally ready to accuse him to the people, and excite their indignation against him, as betraying the civil liberties and privileges of his country. It is further probable that the Herodians, in their doctrinal tenets, were chiefly of the sect of the Sadducees, who were the most indifferent to religion among the whole Jewish nation; since that which is by one evangelist called the *leaven of Herod* (Mark viii. 15.), is by another termed (Matt. xvi. 6.) the *leaven of the Sadducees*.²

¹ Lewis's *Origines Hebrææ*, vol. iii. pp. 57—59. In pp. 59—63 he has printed a letter, purporting to have been written by the Samaritans at Shechem in the seventeenth century, and sent by them to their brethren in England, by Dr. Huntington, some time chaplain to the Turkey Company at Aleppo, and afterwards Bishop of Raphoe, in Ireland.

² Pridmore's *Connection*, part ii. book v. (vol. ii. pp. 365—368.) Jennings's *Jewish Antiquities*, book i. ch. xii. (pp. 244—246.), where the different opinions of former writers concerning the Herodians are enumerated; as also in Elsley's *Annotations on the Gospels*, vol. i. pp. 54—546. vol. ii. p. 15. Parkhurst's *Greek Lexicon*, pp. 290, 291. Lardner's *Credibility*, part i. book i. ch. iv. § 4. (Works, vol. i. pp. 126, 127.)

VII. The GALILÆANS were a sect that originated from the Pharisees, A. D. 12, when Archelaus was banished, Judæa reduced into a Roman province, and a census taken by Quirinius or Cyrenius president of Syria (to which province Judæa was attached). On this occasion, Judas the Galilæan, or Gaulonite, as he is also called¹, exhorted the people to shake off this yoke, telling them, that tribute was due to God alone, and consequently ought not to be paid to the Romans; and that religious liberty and the authority of the divine laws were to be defended by force of arms. In other respects his doctrines appear to have been the same as those of the Pharisees. The tumults raised by these pernicious tenets were indeed suppressed (Acts v. 37.); but his followers, who were called Galilæans, continued secretly to propagate them, and to make proselytes, whom they required to be circumcised. As the same restless disposition and seditious principles continued to exist at the time when the apostles Paul and Peter wrote their Epistles, they took occasion thence to inculcate upon Christians (who were at that time generally confounded with the Jews), the necessity of obedience to civil authority, with singular ability, truth, and persuasion. See Rom. xiii. 1. et seq. 1 Tim. ii. 1. et seq. 1 Peter ii. 13. et seq.²

The ZEALOTS, so often mentioned in Jewish history, appear to have been the followers of this Judas. Lamy is of opinion that the JUST MEN whom the Pharisees and Herodians sent to entangle Jesus in his conversation, were members of this sect. (Matt. xxii. 15, 16. Mark xii. 13, 14. Luke xx. 20.)³ Simon the Canaanite, one of the apostles of Jesus Christ, is called *Zelotes* (Luke vi. 15.): and in Acts xxi. 20. and xxii. 3. (Gr.) we find that there were certain Christians at Jerusalem, who are denominated ZEALOTS. But these merely insisted on the fulfilment of the Mosaic law, and by no means went so far as those persons, termed *Zelotæ* or Zealots, of whom we read in Josephus's history of the Jewish war.

VIII. The SICARII, noticed in Acts xxi. 38. were assassins, who derived their name from their using poniards bent like the Roman *sica*, which they concealed under their garments, and privately stabbed the objects of their malice.⁴ The Egyptian impostor, also mentioned by the sacred historian, is noticed by Josephus, who says

¹ He was a native of Gamala in the province of Gaulonitis.

² Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xviii. c. i. § 1. 6. lib. xx. c. v. § 2. De Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. xvii. § 7—9. lib. vii. c. viii. § 1. The Theudas mentioned in Acts v. 36. must not be confounded with the Theudas or Judas referred to by Josephus. (Ant. lib. xx. c. v. § 1.) Theudas was a very common name among the Jews; and the person mentioned by the sacred historian was probably one of the many leaders who took up arms in defence of the public liberties, at the time of Cyrenius's enrolment and taxation, at least seven, if not ten, years before the speech delivered by Gamaliel. (Acts v. 34—40.) He seems to have been supported by smaller numbers than the second of that name, and (as the second afterwards did) perished in the attempt; but as his followers were dispersed, and not slaughtered, like those of the second Judas, survivors might talk much of him, and Gamaliel might have been particularly informed of his history, though Josephus only mentions it in general terms. See Dr. Lardner's Credibility, part i. book ii. ch. vii. (Works, vol. i. pp. 405—413.) Dr. Doddridge on Acts v. 36.

³ Apparatus Biblicus, vol. i. p. 239.

⁴ Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xx. c. viii. § 10.

that he was at the head of 30,000 men, though St. Luke notices only 4000 ; but both accounts are reconciled by supposing that the impostor (who in the second year of Nero pretended to be a prophet) led out 4000 from Jerusalem, who were afterwards joined by others to the amount of 30,000, as related by Josephus. They were attacked and dispersed by the Roman procurator Felix.¹

SECTION III.

ON THE EXTREME CORRUPTION OF THE JEWISH PEOPLE, BOTH IN RELIGION AND MORALS, AT THE TIME OF CHRIST'S BIRTH.

General Corruption of the leaders of the Jewish nation — of their chief priests, and other ministers of religion — its deplorable effects on the people — state of the Jews not resident in Palestine.

THE preceding chapters² will have shewn that the political state of the Jews was truly deplorable. Although they were oppressed and fleeced by various governors, who exercised the most rigorous authority over them, in many instances with peculiar avarice, cruelty, and extortion, yet they were in some measure governed by their own laws, and were permitted to enjoy their religion. The administration of their sacred rites continued to be committed to the high priest and the sanhedrin ; to the former the priests and Levites were subordinate as before ; and the form of their external worship, except in a very few points, had suffered no visible change. But, whatever comforts were left to them by the Roman magistrates, they were not allowed to enjoy them by their chief priests and popular leaders, whom Josephus characterises as profligate wretches, who had purchased their places by bribes or by acts of iniquity, and maintained their ill-acquired authority by the most flagitious and abominable crimes. Nor were the religious creeds of these men more pure : having espoused the principles of various sects, they suffered themselves to be led away by all the prejudice and animosity of party (though, as in the case of our Saviour, they would sometimes abandon them to promote some favourite measure) ; and were commonly more intent on the gratification of private enmity, than studious of advancing the cause of religion, or promoting the public welfare. The subordinate and inferior members were infected with the corruption of the head ; the priests, and the other ministers of religion, were become dissolute and abandoned in the highest degree ; while the common people, instigated by examples so depraved, rushed headlong into every kind of iniquity, and by their incessant seditions,

¹ Josephus, *Ant. Jud.* lib. xx. c. viii. § 6. De Bell. *Jud.* lib. ii. c. xiii. § 5. Dr. Lardner's *Credibility*, part i. book ii. ch. viii. (Works, vol. i. pp. 414—419.)

² See particularly pp. 96—105. of the present volume.

robberies, and extortions, armed against themselves both the justice of God and the vengeance of men.

Owing to these various causes, the great mass of the Jewish people were sunk into the most deplorable ignorance of God and of divine things. Hence proceeded that dissoluteness of manners, and that profligate wickedness which prevailed among the Jews during Christ's ministry upon earth; in allusion to which the divine Saviour compares the people to a multitude of lost sheep, straying without a shepherd (Matt. x. 6. xv. 24.), and their teachers, or doctors, to blind guides, who professed to instruct others in a way with which they were totally unacquainted themselves.¹ (Matt. xv. 14. John ix. 39, 40.)

More particularly, in the New Testament², the Jews are described as a most superstitious and bigotted people, attached to the Mosaic ritual and to the whimsical traditions of their elders, with a zeal and fanaticism approaching to madness. They are represented as a nation of hypocrites, assuming the most sanctimonious appearance before the world, at the corners of crowded streets uttering loud and fervent strains of rapturous devotion, merely to attract the eyes of a weak and credulous multitude, and to be noticed and venerated by them as mirrors of mortification and heavenly-mindedness; devoured with ostentation and spiritual pride; causing a trumpeter to walk before them in the streets, and make proclamation that such a rabbi was going to distribute his alms; publicly displaying all this shewy parade of piety and charity, yet privately guilty of the most unfeeling cruelty and oppression; devouring widows' houses, stripping the helpless widow and friendless orphan of their property, and exposing them to all the rigours of hunger and nakedness; clamouring, *The temple of the Lord! The temple of the Lord!* making conscience of paying tithe of mint, anise, and cummin, to the support of its splendour and priesthood, but in practical life violating and trampling upon the first duties of morality, — justice, fidelity, and mercy, — as being vulgar and heathenish attainments, and infinitely below the regard of exalted saints and spiritual perfectionists. Their great men were to an incredible degree depraved in their morals, many of them Sadducees in principle, and in practice the most profligate sensualists and debauchees; their atrocious and abandoned wickedness, as Josephus testifies³, transcended all the enormities which the most corrupt age of the world had ever beheld; they compassed sea and land to make proselytes to Judaism from the Pagans, and, when they had gained these converts, soon rendered them, by their in-

¹ Mosheim's *Ecl. Hist.* book i. part i. chap. ii., and also his *Commentaries on the Affairs of Christians before the time of Constantine the Great*, vol. i. introd. chap. ii.

² For the following picture of the melancholy corruption of the Jewish church and people, the author is indebted to Dr. Harwood's *Introduction to the New Testament* (vol. ii. pp. 58. 61.), collated with Peitii *Introductio*, p. 471. et seq., and verifying also the several authorities referred to by him.

³ Josephus, *Bell. Jud.* lib. vii. p. 131^c. Hudson. Again, says this historian, "They were universall corrupt, both publicly and privately. They vied which should surpass each other in impiety against God and injustice towards men." *Ibid.*

moral lives and scandalous examples, more depraved and profligate than ever they were before their conversion. The apostle tells them, that by reason of their notorious vices their religion was become the object of calumny and satire among the heathen nations. *The name of God is blasphemed among the Gentiles through you!*¹ (Rom. ii. 24.) And in his Epistle to Titus he informs us that the Jews in speculation indeed acknowledged a God, but in practice they were atheists; for in their lives they were abominably immoral and abandoned, and the contemptuous despisers of every thing that was virtuous. *They profess that they know God, but in works they deny him, being abominable and disobedient, and unto every good work reprobate.* (Titus i. 16.) This testimony to the religious and moral character of the Jewish people, by Jesus Christ and his apostles, is amply corroborated by Josephus, who has given us a true estimate of their principles and manners, and is also confirmed by other contemporary historians.² The circumstance of their nation having been favoured with an explicit revelation from the Deity, instead of enlarging their minds, miserably contracted and soured them with all the bitterness and leaven of theological odium. They regarded uncircumcised heathens with sovereign contempt³, and believed them to be hated by God, merely because they were born aliens from the commonwealth of Israel, and lived strangers to their covenant of promise. They would not eat with them (Acts xi. 3.), do the least friendly office for them, or maintain any social correspondence and mutual intercourse with them. The apostle comprises their national character in a few words, and it is a just one: *They were contrary to all men.*⁴ (1 Thess. ii. 15.) The supercilious insolence with which the mean and selfish notion of their being the only favourites of heaven and enlightened by God, inflated them as a people, and the haughty and scornful

¹ The superstitious credulity of a Jew was proverbial among the heathens. *Credat Judæus Apella.* Horat. Epictetus mentions and exposes their greater attachment to their ceremonies than to the duties of morality. *Dissertationes*, lib. i. p. 118. edit. Upton. See also Josephus contra Apion. p. 480. Havercamp.

² "I cannot forbear," says Josephus, "declaring my opinion, though the declaration fills me with great emotion and regret, that if the Romans had delayed to come against these wretches, the city would either have been ingulphed by an earthquake, overwhelmed by a deluge, or destroyed by fire from heaven, as Sodom was: for that generation was far more enormously wicked than those who suffered these calamities." *Belus Jud.* lib. v. c. 13. p. 1256. "These things they suffered," says Origen, "as being the most abandoned of men." Origen contra Celsum, p. 62. Cantab. 1677.

³ "The Jews are the only people who refuse all friendly intercourse with every other nation, and esteem all mankind as enemies." Diod. Siculus, tom. ii. p. 324. edit. Wesseling, Amstel. 1746. "Let him be to thee as an heathen man and a publican." (Matt. xviii. 17.) Of the extreme detestation and abhorrence which the Jews had for the Gentiles we have a very striking example in that speech which St. Paul addresses to them, telling them in the course of it, that God had commissioned him to go to the Gentiles. The moment he had pronounced the word, the whole assembly was in confusion, tore off their clothes, rent the air with their cries, threw clouds of dust into it, and were transported into the last excesses of rage and madness. "He said unto me, Depart, for I will send thee far hence unto the Gentiles: they gave him audience," says the sacred historian, "word, and then lifted up their voice and said, Away with such a fellow from for it is not fit that he should live." (Acts xxii. 21.)

character of the Jewish nation is confirmed by Tacitus, and expressed almost in words of the apostle, "Adversus omnes alios hostile odium." Tacit. Hist. lib. v. iii. p. 261. edit. Bipont.

disdain in which they held the heathens, are in a very striking manner characterised in the following spirited address of St. Paul to them. — “Behold! thou art called a Jew, and retest in the law, and makest thy boast of God: and knowest his will, and approvest the things that are more excellent, being instructed out of the law, and art confident that thou thyself art a guide of the blind, a light of them which are in darkness, an instructor of the foolish, a teacher of babes, which hast the form of knowledge and of the truth in the law.” (Rom. ii. 17—20.) This passage exhibits to us a faithful picture of the national character of this people, and shews us how much they valued themselves upon their wisdom and superior knowledge of religion, arrogating to themselves the character of lights and guides, and instructors of the whole world, and contemptuously regarding all the heathen as blind, as babes, and as fools!

Another ever memorable instance of the national pride and arrogance of this vain and ostentatious people is, that when our Lord was discoursing to them concerning their pretensions to moral liberty, and representing the ignoble and despicable bondage in which sin detains its votaries, they imagined this to be an indirect allusion to the present condition of their country: their pride was instantly in flames; and they had the effrontery and impudence openly to assert, that they had always been free, and were never in bondage to any man (John viii. 33.); though every child must know the history of their captivities, must know that Judæa was at that very time a conquered province, had been subdued by Pompey, and from that time, had paid an annual tribute to Rome!

Another characteristic which distinguishes and marks this people, was that kind of evidence which they expected in order to their reception of truth. *Except they saw signs and wonders they would not believe!* (John iv. 48.) If a doctrine proposed to their acceptance was not confirmed by some visible displays of preternatural power, some striking phenomena, the clear and indubitable evidences of an immediate divine interposition, they would reject it. In antient times, for a series of many years, this people had been favoured with numerous signal manifestations from heaven: a cloud had conducted them by day, and a pillar of fire by night; their law was given them accompanied by a peculiar display of solemn pomp and magnificence; and the glory of God had repeatedly filled their temple. Habituated as their understandings had been, for many ages, to receive as truth only what should be attested and ratified by signs from heaven, and by some grand and striking phenomena in the sky, it was natural for them, long accustomed as they had been to this kind of evidence, to ask our Saviour to give them some *sign from heaven* (Matt. xvi. 1.), to exhibit before them some amazing and stupendous prodigy in the air to convince them of the dignity and divinity of his character. *The Jews, says St. Paul, require a sign* (1 Cor. i. 22.); it was that species of evidence to which their nation had been accustomed. Thus we read that the Scribes and Pharisees came to John, desiring him that he would shew them a

sign from heaven. Again, we read that the Jews came and said to Jesus, *What sign shewest thou unto us, seeing that thou dost these things? Jesus answered and said unto them, Destroy this temple, and in three days I will raise it up!* (John ii. 18, 19.) What kind of signs these were which they expected and what sort of preternatural prodigies they wanted him to display in order to authenticate his divine mission to them, appears from the following passages: *They said therefore, unto him, What sign shewest thou then, that we may see and believe thee? What dost thou work? Our fathers did eat manna in the desert, as it is written, He gave them bread from heaven!* (John vi. 30, 31.) This method, therefore, of espousing religious doctrines, only as they should be confirmed by some signal and indubitable interposition of the deity, and their cherishing the vanity and presumption that heaven would lavish its miraculous signs whenever they called for them, constitute a striking and very distinguishing feature in the national character of this people.

So exceedingly great was the fecundity of the Jewish people, that multitudes of them had occasionally been constrained to emigrate from their native country; hence, at the time of our Saviour's birth, there was scarcely a province in the Roman empire in which they were not to be found, either serving in the army, engaged in the pursuits of commerce, or exercising some lucrative arts. They were maintained, in foreign countries, against injurious treatment and violence, by various special edicts of the emperors and magistrates in their favour¹; though from the peculiarities of their religion and manners, they were held in very general contempt, and were not unfrequently exposed to much vexation and annoyance from the jealousy and indignation of an ignorant and superstitious populace. Many of them, in consequence of their long residence and intercourse with foreign nations, fell into the error of endeavouring to make their religion accommodate itself to the principles and institutions of some of the different systems of heathen discipline: but, on the other hand, it is clear that the Jews brought many of those among whom they resided to perceive the superiority of the Mosaic religion over the Gentile superstitions, and were highly instrumental in causing them to forsake the worship of a plurality of gods. Although the knowledge which the Gentiles thus acquired from the Jews respecting the only true God, the Creator and Governor of the universe, was doubtless both partial and limited, yet it inclined many of them the more readily to listen to the subsequent arguments and exhortations of the apostles of our Saviour, for the purpose of exploding the worship of false deities, and recalling men to the knowledge of true religion. All which, Mosheim observes, with equal truth and piety, appears to have been most singularly and wisely directed by the adorable hand of an interposing

¹ In proof of this observation, Mosheim refers to Jacobi Gronovii *Decreta Romana ac Asiatica pro Judo et cultum divinum per Asiæ Minoris urbes securè obseundum*. Lugd. Bat. 1722, 8vo. See also Dr. Lardner's *Credibility*, parti. book i. ch. viii. pp. 164—201.) where numerous valuable testimonies are adduced.

Providence; to the end that this people, who were the sole depository of the true religion and of the knowledge of the one supreme God, being spread abroad through the whole earth, might be every where, by their example, a reproach to superstition, contribute in some measure to check it, and thus prepare the way for that fuller display of divine truth which was to shine upon the world from the ministry and Gospel of the Son of God.¹

¹ Mosheim's *Commentaries*, vol. i. p. 106. *Eccel. Hist.* vol. i. p. 52. edit. 1806. Besides the authorities cited in the preceding chapter, the Jewish sects, &c. are largely discussed by Pritius, *introd. ad Nov. Test.* chap. xxxii.—xxxv. pp. 249—275. Prideaux, *Connection*, book v. vol. ii. pp. 335—368. Relandi *Antiq. Sacr. Hebræorum*, p. 276. *et seq.* Ikenius, *Antiq. Hebr.* pp. 33—42. Schachtii *Dictata in Ikenium*, p. 241. *et seq.* Dr. Macknight's *Harmony*, vol. i. disc. 1. Lamy's *Apparatus Biblicus*, vol. i. pp. 225—243. Dr. Lardner's *Credibility*, part i. book i. ch. 4. Leusden's *Philologus Hebræo-Mixtus*, pp. 138—170. Buddei *Hist. Philosophiæ Hebræorum*, p. 86. *et seq.* Schulzii *Archæologia Hebraica*, pp. 170—183.

PART IV.

DOMESTIC ANTIQUITIES
OF THE JEWS, AND OF OTHER NATIONS INCIDENTALLY
MENTIONED IN THE SCRIPTURES.

CHAPTER I.

ON THE DWELLINGS OF THE JEWS.

I. *Tents.*—II. *Houses*—*their arrangement*—*materials*—*and conveniences.*—III. *Furniture.*—IV. *Cities, Gates, and Markets.*

I. AS men, in the primitive condition of society, were unacquainted with the arts, they of course were not able to build themselves houses; they abode therefore necessarily under the shade of trees. It is probable that when mankind began to multiply on the earth, they dwelt in caves, many of which, in the Holy Land, are both capacious and dry, and still afford occasional shelter to the wandering shepherds and their flocks. Thus, Lot and his daughters abode in a cave, after the destruction of Sodom. (Gen. xix. 30.) Antient historians¹ contain many notices of troglodytes, or dwellers in caves, and modern travellers have met with them in Barbary and Egypt, as well as in various other parts of the East. The Horites, who dwelt on Mount Seir, the Zamzumim, and the Emims or Anakim, are supposed to have resided in caves. In succeeding ages, they abode generally in tents, as the Arabs of the Desert do to this day. The invention of these is ascribed to Jabal the son of Lamech, who is therefore termed the *father of such as dwell in tents.* (Gen. iv. 20.) The patriarchs pitched their tents where they pleased, and, it should seem, under the shade of trees whenever this was practicable. Thus, Abraham's tent was pitched under a tree in the plains of Mamre (Gen. xviii. 4.), and Deborah the prophetess dwelt under a palm tree between Ramah and Bethel, in Mount Ephraim. (Judg. iv. 5.) In the East, to this day, it is the custom in many places to plant about and among their buildings trees, which grow both high and broad, and afford a cooling and refreshing shade. It appears from 1 Kings iv. 25. that this practice antiently obtained in Judæa, and that vines and fig trees were commonly used for this purpose. These trees furnished two great articles of food for their consumption, and the cuttings of their vines would be useful to them for fuel. The tents of the emirs and sovereigns of the East, are both large and magnificent, and furnished with magnificent hangings. Those of the Turko-

¹ Herodotus, lib. iii. c. 74. Diod. Sic. lib. iii. c. 31. Quintus Curtius, lib. v. c. 6. Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. xv. c. 4. § 1.

mans are said to be white: and those of the Turks green: but, according to D'Arvieux, Dr. Shaw, and M. Volney, the tents of the Bedouins, or Arabs of the Desert, are universally *black*, or of a very *dark brown*. To these the bride in the Canticles compares herself (i. 5.),—*I am black* (or, *tawney*) *as the tents of Kedar*, but *comely*, or *beautiful* as the curtains of Solomon. In the East, those who lead a pastoral life, frequently sit (as Abraham did) in the tent-door in the heat of the day. (Gen. xviii. 1.) The Arabian tents are of an oblong figure, supported according to their size, some with one pillar, others with two or three, while a curtain or carpet, occasionally let down from each of these divisions, converts the whole into so many separate apartments. These tents are kept firm and steady, by bracing or stretching down their eves with cords, tied to hooked wooden pins, well pointed, which they drive into the ground with a mallet: one of these pins answering to the nail, as the mallet does to the hammer, which Jael used in fastening the temples of Sisera to the ground. (Judg. iv. 21.) In these dwellings the Arabian shepherds and their families repose upon the bare ground, or with only a mat or carpet beneath them. Those who are married have each of them a portion of the tent to themselves separated by a curtain.¹ The more opulent Arabs, however, always have two tents, one for themselves, and another for their wives, besides others for their servants; in like manner, a particular tent was allotted to Sarah. (Gen. xxiv. 67.) When travelling, they were careful to pitch their tents near some river, fountain, or well. (1 Sam. xxix. 1. xxx. 21.)

II. In progress of time men erected houses for their habitations: those of the rich were formed of stone or bricks, but the dwellings of the poor were formed of wood, or more frequently of mud, as they are to this day in the East Indies²; which material is but ill calculated to resist the effects of the impetuous torrents, that descended from the mountains of Palestine.³ Our Lord alludes to this circumstance at the close of his sermon on the mount. (Matt. vii. 26, 27.) In the Indies also, nothing is more common than for thieves to dig or break through these mud-walls, while the unsuspecting inhabitants are overcome by sleep, and to plunder them.⁴ To similar depredations Jesus Christ appears to allude, when he exhorts his disciples not to lay up their treasure where *thieves break through and steal*. (Matt. vi. 19, 20.) Job also seems to refer to the same practice. (xxiv. 16.) In the holes and chinks of these walls, serpents sometimes concealed themselves. (Amos v. 19.) In Egypt, it appears from Exod. v. 7., that straw antiently entered into the composition of bricks; and some expositors have imagined

¹ Shaw's Travels, vol. i. pp. 338, 399.

² In Bengal and Ceylon, as well as in Egypt, houses are constructed with this frail material. Dr. Davy's Account of the Interior of Ceylon, p. 256. See also Harmer's Observations, vol. i. pp. 266, 285.

³ See instances of the frailty of these tenements in Dr. Shaw's Travels, vol. i. p. 250. Belzoni's Researches in Egypt, p. 399., and Ward's View of the History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. ii. p. 335.

⁴ Ward's History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. iii. p. 295.

that it was used (as with us), merely for burning them; but this notion is unfounded. The Egyptian bricks were a mixture of clay, mud, and straw, slightly blended and kneaded together, and afterwards baked in the sun. Philo, in his life of Moses, says, that they used straw to bind their bricks.¹ The straw still preserves its original colour, and is a proof that these bricks were never burnt in stacks or kilns.² Part of the bricks of the celebrated tower of Babel, (or of Belus' as the Greeks termed it,) were made of clay mixed with chopped straw, or broken reeds, to compact it, and then dried in the sun. Their solidity is equal to that of the hardest stone.³

At first, houses were small; afterwards they were larger, especially in extensive cities, the capitals of empires. The art of multiplying stories in a building is very antient, as we may conclude from the construction of Noah's ark and the Tower of Babel. The houses in Babylon, according to Herodotus⁴, were three and four stories high; and those in Thebes or Diospolis⁵, in Egypt, were four or five stories. In Palestine they appear to have been low, during the time of Joshua; an upper story, though it *may* have existed, is not mentioned till a more recent age. The houses of the rich and powerful in Palestine, in the time of Christ, were splendid, and were built according to the rules of Grecian architecture. Of

¹ Philonis Opera, tom. ii. p. 86. (edit Mangey.)

² Shaw's Travels, vol. i. p. 250. Mr. Belzoni, in his late researches in Egypt, found similar bricks in an antient arch which he discovered at Thebes, and which he has engraved among the plates illustrative of his Researches in Egypt, Nubiâ, &c. Plate xlv. No. 2. In and near the ruins of the antient Tentyra, Dr. Richardson also found huts built of sun-dried brick, made of straw and clay. (Travels, vol. i. pp. 185. 259.) They are thus described by the Rev. Mr. Jowett, as they appeared in February 1819.—Speaking of the remains of antient buildings in that part of Egypt, he says:—"These magnificent edifices, while they display the grandeur of former times, exhibit no less the meanness of the present. This temple, built of massive stone, with a portico of twenty-four pillars, adorned with innumerable hieroglyphics, and painted with beautiful colours, the brightness of which in many parts remains to this day, is choked up with dusty earth. Village after village, built of unburnt brick, crumbling into ruins, and giving place to new habitations, have raised the earth, in some parts, nearly to the level of the summit of the temple: and fragments of the walls of these mud huts appear, even on the roof of the temple. In every part of Egypt, we find the towns built in this manner, upon the ruins, or rather the rubbish of the former habitations. The expression in Jeremiah xxx. 18. literally applies to Egypt, in the very meanest sense—*The city shall be builded upon her own heap*: and the expression in Job xv. 28. might be illustrated by many of these deserted hovels—*He dwelleth in desolate cities, and in houses which no man inhabiteth, which are ready to become heaps*. Still more touching is the allusion in Job iv. 19.; where the perishing generations of men are fitly compared to habitations of the frailest materials, built upon the heap of similar dwelling places, now reduced to rubbish—*How much less in them that dwell in houses of clay, whose foundation is in the dust!*"—(Jowett's Researches in the Mediterranean, pp. 131, 132.)—In one place, says the same intelligent traveller, "the people were making bricks, with straw cut into small pieces, and mingled with the clay to bind it. Hence it is, that, when villages built of these bricks fall into rubbish, which is often the case, the roads are full of small particles of straws extremely offensive to the eyes in a high wind. They were, in short, engaged exactly as the Israelites used to be, making bricks with straw; and for a similar purpose—to build extensive granaries for the bashaw; treasure-cities for Pharaoh." Exod. i. 11. (Ibid. p. 172.)

³ Sir R. Porter's Travels in Georgia, Persia, Babilonia, &c. vol. ii. pp. 329, 330

⁴ Herodot. lib. i. c. 183.

⁵ Ibid. Sic. lib. i. c. 43.

all modern travellers, no one has so happily described the form and structure of the eastern buildings as Dr. Shaw, from whose account the following particulars are derived, which admirably elucidate several interesting passages of holy writ. The general method of building, both in Barbary and the Levant (this distinguished scholar and traveller remarks), seems to have continued the same from the earliest ages down to this time without the least alteration or improvement. Large doors, spacious chambers, marble pavements, cloistered courts, with fountains sometimes playing in the midst, are certainly conveniences very well adapted to the circumstances of these climates, where the summer heats are generally so intense. The jealousy likewise of these people is less apt to be alarmed, whilst, if we except a small latticed window or balcony which sometimes looks into the street, all the other windows open into their respective courts or quadrangles. It is during the celebration of some Zeenah, as they call it, or public festival, that their houses, and their windows, and latticed balconies, are left open. For this being a time of great liberty, revelling, and extravagance, each family is ambitious of adorning both the inside and outside of their houses with their richest furniture: whilst crowds of both sexes, dressed in their best apparel, and laying aside all modesty, ceremony, and restraint, go in and out where they please. The account we have (2 Kings ix. 30.) of Jezebel's painting her face, and tiring her hair, and looking out at the window on Jehu's public entrance, gives us a lively idea of an eastern lady at one of these Zeenahs or solemnities.

The streets of these cities, the better to shade them from the sun, are usually narrow, with sometimes a range of shops on each side. If from these we enter into any of the principal houses, we shall first pass through a porch¹ or gateway, with benches on each side, where the master of the family receives visits, and despatches business; few persons, not even the nearest relations, having admission any farther, except upon extraordinary occasions. From hence we are received into the court, which lying open to the weather, is, according to the ability of the owner, paved with marble, or such proper materials, as will carry off the water into the common sewers. There is something very analogous between this open space in these buildings, and the *impluvium* or *cavaedium* of the Romans: both of them being alike exposed to the weather, and giving light to the house. When much people are to be admitted, as upon the celebration of a marriage, the circumcising of a child, or occasions of the like nature, the company is seldom or never admitted into one of the chambers. The court is the usual place of their reception, which is strewn accordingly

¹ In Bengal, servants and others generally sleep in the verandah or porch; in front of their master's house. (Ward's History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. ii. p. 323.) The Arab servants in Egypt do the same. (Wilson's Travels in Egypt and the Holy Land, p. 55.) In this way Uriah slept at the door of the king's house, with all the servants of his lord. (2 Sam. xi. 9.)

with mats or carpets for their more commodious entertainment : and as this is called *el woost*, or the middle of the house, literally answering to the *το μεσον* of St. Luke (v. 19.), it is probable that the place where our Saviour and his apostles were frequently accustomed to give their instructions, might have been in the like situation, *i. e.* in the area or quadrangle of one of these houses. In the summer season, and upon all occasions when a large company is to be received, the court is commonly sheltered from the heat and inclemencies of the weather by a vellum umbrella or veil, which being expanded upon ropes from one side of the parallel wall to the other, may be folded or unfolded at pleasure. The Psalmist seems to allude either to the tents of the Bedouins, or to some covering of this kind, in that beautiful expression, *of spreading out the heavens like a veil or curtain.* (Psal. civ. 2. See also Isaiah xl. 22.) Antiently, it was the custom to secure the door of a house, by a cross-bar or bolt, which by night was fastened by a little button or pin : in the upper part of the door was left a round hole, through which any person from without might thrust his arm, and remove the bar, unless this additional security were superadded. To such a mode of fastening the bride alludes in Cant. v. 4.¹

The court is for the most part surrounded with a cloister, as a *cavaedium* of the Romans was with a peristylum or colonnade, over which, when the house has one or more stories (and they sometimes have two or three), there is a gallery erected of the same dimensions with the cloister, having a balustrade, or else a piece of carved or latticed work going round about it, to prevent people from falling from it into the court. From the cloisters and galleries, we are conducted into large spacious chambers of the same length of the court, but seldom or never communicating with one another. One of them frequently serves a whole family, particularly when a father indulges his married children to live with him ; or when several persons join in the rent of the same house. Hence it is that the cities of these countries, which are generally much inferior in size to those of Europe, are so exceedingly populous, that great numbers of the inhabitants are swept away with the plague, or any other contagious distemper.

In houses of better fashion, these chambers, from the middle of the wall downwards, are covered and adorned with velvet or damask hangings, of white, blue, red, green, or other colours (Esth. i. 6.), suspended upon hooks, or taken down at pleasure.² But the upper

¹ Bp. Percy's Translation of Solomon's Song, p. 76.

² Similar costly hangings appear to have decorated the pavilion or state tent of Solomon, alluded to in Cant. i. 5. ; the beauty and elegance of which would form a striking contrast to the black tents of the nomadic Arabs. The white tents of modern oriental sovereigns, it is well known, are very superb : of this gorgeous splendour, Mr. Harmer has given some instances from the travels of Egmont and Hayman. The tent of the Grand Seigneur was covered and lined with silk. Nadir Shah had a very superb one, covered on the outside with scarlet broad cloth, and lined within with violet-coloured satin,

part is embellished with more permanent ornaments, being adorned with the most ingenious wreathings and devices in stucco and fret-work. The ceiling is generally of wainscot, either very artfully painted, or else thrown into a variety of pannels, with gilded mouldings and scrolls of their Koran intermixed. The prophet Jeremiah (xxii. 14.) exclaims against the eastern houses that were ceiled with cedar, and painted with vermilion. The floors are laid with painted tiles, or plaster of terrace. But as these people make little or no use of chairs (either sitting cross-legged or lying at length) they always cover and spread them over with carpets¹ which for the most part are of the richest materials. Along the sides of the wall or floor, a range of narrow beds or mattresses is often placed upon these carpets: and for their farther ease and convenience, several velvet or damask bolsters are placed upon these carpets or mattresses; indulgences which seem to be alluded to by *their stretching themselves upon couches*, and *by the sewing of pillows to the arm-holes*, as we have it expressed in Amos vi. 4. and Ezek. xiii. 18. At one end of the chamber there is a little gallery, raised three, four, or five feet above the floor, with a balustrade in the front of it, with a few steps likewise leading up to it. Here they place their beds; a situation frequently alluded to in the holy Scriptures; which may likewise illustrate the circumstance of Hezekiah's *turning his face when he prayed towards the wall*, i. e. from his attendants (2 Kings xx. 2.), that the fervency of his devotion might be the less taken notice of and observed. The like is related of Ahab (1 Kings xxi. 4.), though probably not upon a religious account, but in order to conceal from his attendants the anguish he felt for his late disappointments.

The stairs are sometimes placed in the porch, sometimes at the entrance into the court. When there is one or more stories, they are afterwards continued through one corner or other of the gallery to the top of the house, whither they conduct us through a door that is constantly kept shut to prevent their domestic animals from daubing the terrace, and thereby spoiling the water which falls from thence into the cisterns below the court. This door, like most others we meet with in these countries, is hung, not with hinges, but by having the jamb formed at each end into an axle-tree or pivot, whereof the uppermost, which is the longest, is to be received into a correspondent socket in the lintel, while the other falls into a cavity of the same fashion in the threshold.

Dr. Shaw does not remember ever to have observed the staircase conducted along the outside of the house; neither indeed will the contiguity and relation which these houses bear to the street, and to each other (exclusive of the supposed privacy of them) admit of any such contrivance. However, we may go up or down by

ornamented with a great variety of animals, flowers, &c. formed entirely of pearls and precious stones. (Harmer on Sol. Song, p. 186.)

¹ Thus the apartments in which our Lord and his apostles celebrated the passover is said to be *εστρωμενον*, spread with a carpet. Mark xiv. 15. Luke xxii. 12. See Mac-knight, in loc.

the stair above described, without entering into any of the offices or apartments¹, and consequently without interfering with the business of the house.

“ The top of the house, which is always flat, is covered with a strong plaster of terrace, whence in the Frank language it has obtained the name of *the terrace*.² This is usually surrounded by two walls, the outermost whereof is partly built over the street, and partly makes the partition with the contiguous houses, being frequently so low that one may easily climb over it. The other, which may be called the parapet wall, hangs immediately over the court, being always breast high, and answers to the פֶּעֶקֶה, or *lorica*, Deut. xxii. 8., which we render the *battlements*. Instead of this parapet wall, some terraces are guarded, like the galleries, with balustrades only, or latticed work; in which fashion probably, as the name seems to import, was the שֶׁבַּךְ, or net, or lattice, as we render it, that Ahaziah (2 Kings i. 2.) might be carelessly leaning over, when he fell down from thence into the court. For upon those terraces, several offices of the family are performed, such as the drying of linen and flax (Josh. ii. 6.), the preparing of figs or raisins, where likewise they enjoy the cool refreshing breezes of the evening, converse with one another, and offer up their devotions.³ At the feast of tabernacles, booths were erected upon them. (Nehem. viii. 16.) As these terraces are thus frequently used and trampled upon, not to mention the solidity of the materials with which they are made, they will not easily permit any vegetable substances to take root or thrive upon them: which perhaps may illustrate the prophet Isaiah’s comparison of the Assyrians to *the grass upon the house-tops*. (Isa. xxxvii. 27.) — In the mountainous parts of modern Palestine these terraces are composed of *earth*, spread evenly on the roof of the house, and rolled hard and flat. On the top of every house a large stone roller is kept, for the purpose of hardening and flattening this layer of rude soil, to prevent the rain from penetrating: but upon this surface, as may be supposed, grass and weeds grow freely. Similar terraces appear to have been antiently constructed in this country: it is to such grass that the Psalmist alludes as useless and bad — *Let them be as the grass upon the house tops, which withereth afore it groweth up*. (Psal. cxxix. 6.)

¹ Thus our Lord saith, let him who is on the house-top not come down to take any thing out of his house. (Matt. xxiv. 17.) The houses of the Jews, says Bp. Newton, as well as those of the antient Greeks and Romans, were flat on the top for them to walk upon, and had usually stairs on the outside, by which they might ascend and descend without coming into the house. — Bp. Newton on the Prophecies, vol. ii. p. 266. 3d edit.

² On these terraces, the inhabitants of the East sleep, in the open air, during the hot season. See instances, illustrating various passages of the Scriptures, in the Travels of Ali Bey, vol. ii. p. 293.; Mr. Kiani’s Travels in Armenia, &c. p. 134.; Mr. Morier’s Second Journey in Persia, p. 280., where a wood-cut is given explanatory of this practice; and Mr. Ward’s History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. ii. p. 349.

³ Thus we read that Samuel communed with Saul upon the house-top (1 Sam. ix. 25.); David walked upon the roof of the king’s house (2 Sam. xi. 2.); and Peter went up upon the house-top to pray. (Acts x. 9.)

These low and flat-roofed houses afford opportunities to speak to many on the house as well as to many in the court yard below; this circumstance will illustrate the meaning of our Lord's command to his apostles, *What ye hear in the ear, that preach ye upon the housetops.* (Matt. x. 27.)¹

“When any of these cities are built upon level ground, one may pass along the tops of houses from one end of them to the other, without coming down into the street. Such in general is the manner and contrivance of these houses. If then it may be presumed, that our Saviour at the healing of the paralytic was preaching in a house of this fashion, we may, by attending only to the structure of it, give no small light to one circumstance of that history, which has given great offence to some unbelievers. For among other pretended difficulties and absurdities, relating to this fact, it has been urged, that as *the uncovering or breaking up of the roof* (Mark ii. 4.), or *the letting a person down through it* (Luke v. 19.), supposes the breaking up of tiles, spars, rafters, &c. so it was well if Jesus and his disciples escaped with only a broken pate, by the falling of tiles, and if the rest were not smothered with dust.² But that nothing of this nature happened will appear probable, from a different construction that may be put upon the words in the original. For it may be observed with relation to the words of St. Mark, *ἀπεστεγάσαν την στεγην ὅπου ην, και εξορυξαντες*, &c. that as *στεγη*, no less perhaps than *tatilo*, the correspondent word in the Syriac version, will denote with propriety enough any kind of covering, the veil which I have mentioned, as well as a roof or ceiling properly so called; so for the same reason *ἀποστεγειν* may signify the undoing, or removal only of such a covering. *Εξορυξαντες*, which we render *breaking up*, is omitted in the Cambridge MS. and not regarded in the Syriac and some other versions: the translators perhaps either not rightly comprehending the meaning of it, or finding the context clear without it. In St. Jerome's translation the correspondent word is *patefuentes*, as if *εξορυξαντες* was farther explanatory of *ἀπεστεγάσαν*. The same in the Persian version is expressed by *quatuor angulis lectuli totidem funibus annexis*; as if *εξορυξαντες* related either to the letting down of the bed, or, preparatory thereto, to the making holes in it for the cords to pass through. According to this explication therefore, the context may run thus: *When they could not come at Jesus for the press, they got upon the roof of the house, and drew back the veil where he was: or they laid open and uncovered that part of it especially which was spread over the place, ὅπου ην, where he was sitting: and having removed and plucked away, according to St. Jerome, whatever might incommode them in their intended good office: or having tied, according to the Persian version, the four corners of the bed, or bedstead, with cords, where the sick of the palsy lay, they let it down before Jesus.*

¹ Jowett's Christian Researches in Syria, &c. pp. 89. 95. London 1846.
² Woolston, p. 58.

“ For that there was not the least force or violence offered to the roof, and consequently that ἐξορυξαντες, no less than ἀπεστεγασαν, will admit of some other interpretation than what has been given them in our version, appears from the parallel place in Luke, where δια τῶν κεραμῶν καθηκαν αὐτον, *per tegulas demiscerunt illum*, which we translate, *they let him down through the tiling*, as if that had been actually broken up already, should be rendered, *they let him down over, along the side, or by the way of the roof*. For as κεραμοι, or *tegulae*, which originally denoted a roof of tiles, like those of the northern nations, were afterwards applied to the *tectum*, or δωμα in general, of what nature or structure soever they were; so the meaning of letting down a person into the house *per tegulas*, or δια τῶν κεραμῶν, can depend only on the use of the preposition δια. Now both in Acts ix. 25., καθηκαυ δια του τειχους, and 2 Cor. xi. 33. ἐχάλασθην δια του τειχους, where the like phraseology is observed as in St. Luke, δια is rendered in both places *by*, that is, *along the side, or by the way of the wall*. By interpreting therefore δια in this sense, δια τῶν κεραμῶν καθηκαν αὐτον, will be rendered as above, *they let him down over, or by the way of the wall*, just as we may suppose Mark Antony to have been, agreeably to a noted passage in Tully. An action of the same nature seems to be implied in what is related of Jupiter¹, where it is said, *se in hominem convertisse, atque per alienas tegulas venisse clanculum per impluvium*. And of the snake, which we learn² *per impluvium decidisse de tegulis*. What Dr. Lightfoot also observes out of the Talmud upon Mark ii. 4. will, by an alteration only of the preposition which answers to δια, further vouch for this interpretation. For as it is there cited, when *Rabbi Honna was dead, and his bier could not be carried out through the door, which was too strait and narrow, therefore they thought good to let it down* (not through the way of the roof, as the Doctor renders it, but as in δια κεραμῶν, or δια τειχους) *by the way, or over the roof*, viz. by taking it upon the terrace, and letting it down by the wall, that way into the street. We have a passage in Aulus Gellius³ exactly of the same purport; where it is said, that if *any person in chains should make his escape into the house of the Flamen Dialis, he should be forthwith loosed; and that his fetters should be drawn up through the impluvium upon the roof or terrace, and from thence be let down into the highway, or the street*.

“ When the use then of these phrases, and the fashion of these houses, are rightly considered, there will be no reason to suppose that any breach was actually made in the *tegulae*, or κεραμοι; since all that was to be done in the case of a paralytic was to carry him to the top of the house, either by forcing their way through the crowd up the staircase, or else by conveying him over some of the neighbouring terraces, and there, after they had drawn away the

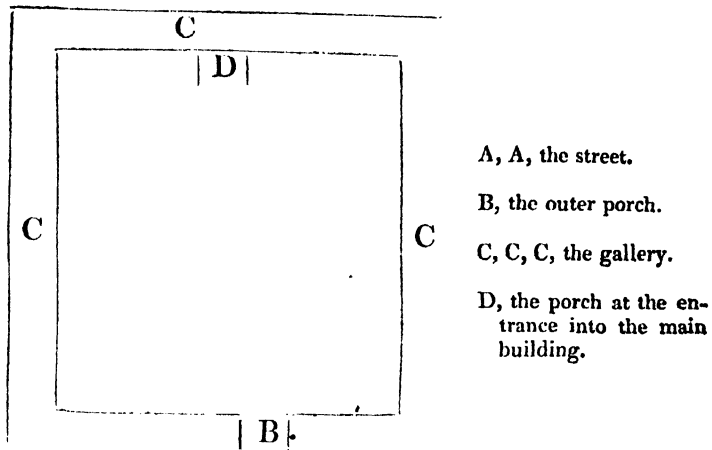
¹ Ter. Eunuch. ii. 5. 37.

² Ter. Phorm. iv. 4. 47.

³ Noctes Atticæ lib. x. c. 15.

σπῆρη, or veil, to let him down along the side of the roof through the opening or impluvium into the midst of the court before Jesus.”¹

The following diagram will perhaps give the reader a tolerably accurate idea of the arrangement of an eastern house.



Now, let it be supposed, that Jesus was sitting at D in the porch, at the entrance into the main building, and speaking to the people, when the four men carrying the paralytic came to the front gate or porch, B. Finding the court so crowded that they could not carry him in and lay him before Jesus, they carried him up the stairs at the porch to the top of the gallery, C, C, C, and along the gallery round to the place where Jesus was sitting, and forcing a passage by removing the balustrade, they lowered down the paralytic, with the couch on which he lay, into the court before Jesus. Thus we are enabled to understand the manner in which the paralytic was brought in and laid before the compassionate Redeemer.

During the Rev. Mr. Jowett's residence at Haivali, in May 1818, he relates that the house, in which he abode, gave him a correct idea of the scene of Eutychus's falling from the upper loft, while Paul was preaching at Troas. (Acts xx. 6—12.) "According to our idea of houses," he remarks, "the scene of Eutychus's falling from the upper loft, is very far from intelligible; and, besides this, the circumstance of preaching generally leaves on the mind of cursory readers the notion of a church. To describe this house, which is not many miles distant from the Troad, and perhaps, from the unchanging character of oriental customs, nearly resembles the houses then built, will fully illustrate the narrative.

"On entering my host's door, we find the first floor entirely used as a store: it is filled with large barrels of oil, the produce of the rich country for many miles round: this space, so far from being habitable, is sometimes so dirty with the dripping of the oil, that it

¹ Shaw's Travels, p. 273. et seq. 4 o. edit.; or vol. i. p. 227. et seq. 8vo. edit.

is difficult to pick out a clean footing from the door to the first step of the staircase. On ascending, we find the first floor, consisting of a humble suite of rooms, not very high : these are occupied by the family, for their daily use. It is on the next story that all their expense is lavished : here, my courteous host has appointed my lodging : beautiful curtains, and mats, and cushions to the divan, display the respect with which they mean to receive their guest : here, likewise, their splendour, being at the top of the house, is enjoyed by the poor Greeks, with more retirement and less chance of molestation from the intrusion of Turks : here, when the Professors of the College waited upon me to pay their respects, they were received in ceremony and sat at the window. The room is both higher and also larger than those below : it has two projecting windows ; and the whole floor is so much extended in front beyond the lower part of the building, that the projecting windows considerably overhang the street. In such an upper room — secluded, spacious, and commodious — Paul was invited to preach his parting discourse. The divan, or raised seat, with mats or cushions, encircles the interior of each projecting window : and I have remarked, that when company is numerous, they sometimes place large cushions behind the company seated on the divan ; so that a second tier of company, with their feet upon the seat of the divan, are sitting behind, higher than the front row. Eutychus, thus sitting, would be on a level with the open window ; and, being overcome with sleep, he would easily fall out, from the third loft of the house, into the street, and be almost certain, from such a height, to lose his life. Thither St. Paul went down ; and comforted the alarmed company, by bringing up Eutychus alive. It is noted, that *there were many lights in the Upper Chamber*. The very great plenty of oil in this neighbourhood would enable them to afford many lamps : the heat of these and so much company would cause the drowsiness of Eutychus at that late hour, and be the occasion likewise of the windows being open.”¹

The tops of the houses in Judaea being flat, and covered with a plaster of terrace, afford a scanty soil to grass : but it is small, and weak, and being exposed to the scorching rays of the sun, it soon withers. (Psal. cxxix. 6.) In erecting their houses, whatever may be the material employed, they furnished the interior of the more common and useful apartments with sets of large nails with square heads (like dice), and bent at the head so as to make them cramp-irons. To this custom there is an allusion in Ezra ix. 8. and Isa. xxii. 23. On these nails were hung their kitchen utensils or other articles. The floors of the houses of the opulent were frequently marble of various colours, or painted tiles or plaster, in all probably similar to those which are yet visible in that superb specimen of Moslem architecture, the Moorish palace of Alhamrā at Granada, and which have been so exquisitely drawn and engraved in Mr.

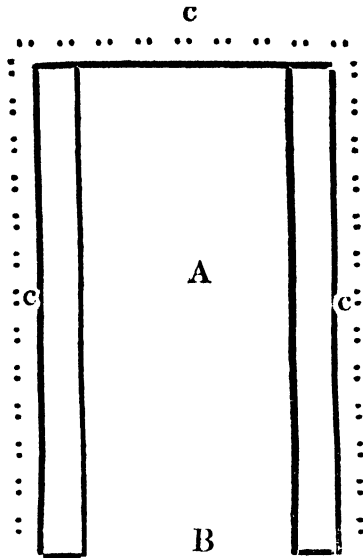
¹ Jowett's Christian Researches in the Mediterranean, pp. 66, 67.

Murphy's "Arabian Antiquities of Spain." Their ceilings were of wood, and pannelled; and the sides of the walls were wainscotted, and sometimes covered with costly hangings. (Jer. xxii. 14. Hagg. i. 4.) In Barbary, the hills and valleys in the vicinity of Algiers are beautified with numerous country-seats and gardens, whither the opulent resort during the intense heats of summer. In all probability, the summer-houses of the Jews, mentioned by the prophet Amos (iii. 15.), were of this description; though these have been supposed to mean different apartments of the same house, the one exposed to a northern and the other to a southern aspect.

It was common when any person had finished a house, and entered into it, to celebrate the event with great rejoicing, and to perform some religious ceremonies, to obtain the divine blessing and protection. The dedication of a *newly-built* house was a ground of exemption from military service. The xxxth Psalm, as appears from the title, was composed on occasion of the *dedication of the house of David*; and this devout practice obtained also among the ancient Romans.

III. The furniture of the oriental dwellings, at least in the earliest ages, was very simple: that of the poorer classes consisted of but few articles, and those such as were absolutely necessary. Instead of chairs, they sat on mats or skins; and the same articles, on which they laid a mattress, served them instead of bedsteads, while their upper garment served them for a covering. (Exod. xxii. 26, 27. Deut. xxiv. 12.) This circumstance accounts for our Lord's commanding the paralytic to take up his bed and go unto his house. (Matt. ix. 6.) The more opulent had (as those in the East still have) fine carpets, couches, or divans, and sofas, on which they *sat*¹, lay, and slept. (2 Kings iv. 10. 2 Sam. xvii. 28.) In later times their couches were splendid, and the frames inlaid with ivory (Amos vi. 4.), and the coverlids rich and perfumed. (Prov. vii. 16, 17.) On these sofas, in the latter ages of the Jewish state, (for before the time of Moses, it appears to have been the custom to sit at table, Gen. xliii. 33.) they universally reclined, when taking their meals (Amos vi. 4. Luke vii. 36—38.): resting on their side with their heads towards the table, so that their feet were accessible to one who came behind the couch, as in the annexed diagram:

¹ A passage in Jeremiah xlii. 22. may in some degree be explained by the oriental mode of sitting—*For the greatness of thine iniquity, are thy skirts discovered, and thy heels made bare.* "I have often been struck," says Mr. Jowett, "with the manner in which a great man sits: for example, when I visited the Bashaw, I never saw his feet: they were entirely drawn up under him, and covered by his dress. This was dignified. To see his feet his skirts must have been discovered: still more so, in order to see the heels, which often serve as the actual seat of an oriental."—Jowett's Christian Researches in the Mediterranean, p. 169.



In which A denotes the table, and c, c, c, the couches on which the guests reclined. B is the lower end, open for servants to enter and supply the guests. The knowledge of this custom enables us to understand the manner in which John leaned on the bosom of his master (John xiii. 23.), and Mary anointed the feet of Jesus and wiped them with her hair.

Antiently, splendid hangings were used in the palaces of the eastern monarchs, and ample draperies were suspended over the openings in the sides of the apartments, for the twofold purpose of affording air, and of shielding them from the sun. Of this description were the costly hangings of the Persian sovereigns mentioned in Esther i. 6. ; which passage is confirmed by the account given by Quintus Curtius of their superb palace at Persepolis.

Other articles of necessary furniture were, at least in the more antient periods, both few and simple. The principal were a hand-mill, with which they ground their corn, a kneading-trough, and an oven. The *Hand-mill* resembled the *querns*, which, in early times, were in general use in this country, and which still continue to be used in some of the more remote northern islands of Scotland, as well as in the East. So essential were these domestic utensils, that the Israelites were forbidden to take them in pledge. (Deut. xxiv. 6.) The *Kneading-Troughs* (at least those which the Israelites carried with them out of Egypt, Exod. xii. 34.) were not the cumbersome articles now in use among us, but comparatively small wooden bowls, like those of the modern Arabs, who, after kneading their flour in them, make use of them as dishes out of which they eat their victuals. The *Oven* was sometimes only an earthen pot in which fire was put to heat it, and on the outside of which the batter or dough was spread, and almost instantly baked. Besides these two articles, they must have had different kinds of earthen-ware vessels, especially pots, to hold water for their various ablutions. While ex-

ploring the ruins of Cana in Galilee, Dr. Clarke saw several large massy stone water-pots, answering the description given of the antient vessels of the country (John ii. 6.); not preserved nor exhibited as reliques, but lying about, disregarded by the present inhabitants, as antiquities with whose original use they were unacquainted. From their appearance, and the number of them, it was quite evident that the practice of keeping water in large stone pots, each holding from eighteen to twenty-seven gallons, was once common in the country.

Bowls, cups, and drinking vessels of gold and silver, it appears from 1 Kings x. 21. were used in the courts of princes; but the modern Arabs, as the Jewish people antiently did, keep their water, milk, wine, and other liquors, in bottles made of skins. These bottles, when old, are frequently rent, but are capable of being repaired, by being bound up or pieced in various ways. Of this description, were the *wine bottles of the Gibeonites, old and rent, and bound up.* (Josh. ix. 4.) As new wine was liable to ferment and consequently would burst the old skins, all prudent persons would put it into new skins. To this usage our Lord alludes in Matt. ix. 17. Mark ii. 22. and Luke v. 37, 38. Bottles of skin, it is well known, are still in use in Spain, where they are called *Borrachas*.¹ As the Arabs make fires in their tents, which have no chimnies, they must be greatly incommoded by the smoke, which blackens all their utensils and taints their skins. David, when driven from the court of Saul, compares himself to a *bottle in the smoke.* (Psal. cxix. 83.) He must have felt acutely, when he was driven from the vessels of gold and silver in the palace of Saul, to live like an Arab, and drink out of a smoky leathern bottle. His language is, as if he had said,—“My present appearance is as different from what it was when I dwelt at court, as the furniture of a palace differs from that of a poor Arab’s tent.”

IV. In progress of time, as men increased upon the earth, and found themselves less safe in their detached tents, they began to live in society, and fortified their simple dwellings by surrounding them with a ditch, and a rude breast-work, or wall, whence they could hurl stones against their enemies. Hence arose villages, towns, and cities, of which *Cain* is said to have been the first builder. In the time of Moses, the cities of the Canaanites were both numerous and strongly fortified. (Numb. xiii. 28.) In the time of David, when the number of the Israelites was greatly increased, their cities must have proportionably increased: and the vast population which (we have already seen) Palestine maintained in the time of the Romans, is a proof both of the size and number of their cities.

The streets, in the Asiatic cities, do not exceed from two to four cubits in breadth, in order that the rays of the sun may be kept off; but it is evident that they must have formerly been wider, from the

¹ Harmer’s Observations, vol. i. p. 217. See also vol. ii. pp. 135—138. for various remarks illustrative of the nature of the drinking-vessels antiently in use among the Jews.

fact that carriages were driven through them, which are now very seldom, if ever, to be seen in the East. The houses, however, rarely stand together, and most of them have spacious gardens annexed to them. It is not to be supposed that the almost incredible tract of land, which Nineveh and Babylon are said to have covered could have been filled with houses closely standing together: antient writers, indeed, testify that almost a third part of Babylon was occupied by fields and gardens.

In the early ages of the world the Markets were held in the Gates of the Cities (which, we have already seen¹, were the seats of justice), generally within the walls, though sometimes without them. Here commodities were exposed to sale, either in the open air or in tents (2 Kings vii. 18. 2 Chron. xviii. 9. Job xxix. 7.): but in the time of Christ, as we learn from Josephus, the markets were inclosed in the same manner as the modern eastern bazaars, which are closed at night, and where the traders' shops are disposed in rows or streets; and (in large towns) the dealers in particular commodities are confined to particular streets.

The Gates of the Cities, and the vacant places next adjacent to them, must have been of considerable size: for we read that Ahab king of Israel assembled four hundred false prophets before himself and Jehoshaphat king of Judah, in the Gate of Samaria. (1 Kings xxii. 10.) And besides these prophets, we may readily conclude that each of these monarchs had numerous attendants in waiting.

CHAPTER II.

ON THE DRESS OF THE JEWS.

I. *Dress in the early Ages.* — *Upper Garments.* — II. *Tunic.* — III. *Dress of the Women.* — IV. *Distinction between the ὕψιστος or upper Garment and the χiton or Tunic.* — V. *Mode of dressing the Hair.* — VI. *Sandals.* — VII. *Some Articles of Female Apparel elucidated.* — *Complexion of the Women.* — VIII. *Scars or Signets.* — IX. *Wearing of Garments, a sign of Mourning.* — X. *Numerous changes of Apparel, deemed a necessary part of their treasures.*

I. IN the early ages, the dress of mankind was very simple. Skins of animals furnished the first materials, which, as men increased in numbers and civilisation, were exchanged for more costly articles, made of wool and flax, of which they manufactured woollen and linen garments (Levit. xiii. 17. Prov. xxxi. 13.); afterwards fine linen, and silk, dyed with purple, scarlet, and crimson, became

¹ See p. 107. supra.

the usual apparel of the more opulent. (2 Sam. i. 24. Prov. xxxi. 22. Luke xvi. 19.) In the more early ages, garments of various colours were in great esteem: such was Joseph's robe, of which his envious brethren stripped him, when they resolved to sell him. (Gen. xxxvii. 23.) Robes of various colours were likewise appropriated to the virgin daughters of kings (2 Sam. xiii. 18.), who also wore richly embroidered vests. (Psal. xlv. 13, 14.) It appears that the Jewish garments were worn pretty long; for it is mentioned as an aggravation of the affront done to David's ambassadors by the king of Ammon, that he cut off their garments *in the middle even to their buttocks*. (2 Sam. x. 4.)

The dress of the Jews, in the ordinary ranks of life, was simple and nearly uniform. John the Baptist *had his raiment of camels' hair* (Matt. iii. 4.), — not of the fine hair of that animal which is wrought into camlets (in imitation of which, though made of wool, is the English camlet), but of the long and shaggy hair of camels, which in the East is manufactured into a coarse stuff like that anciently worn by monks and anchorets.¹

Dr. Shaw, whose critical observation and long residence in the East, eminently qualified him for illustrating the sacred records, has given an interesting account of the oriental dress, which elucidates many passages in a very pleasing manner. He observes that the Barbary women are employed in making hykes or blankets, as Andromache and Penelope were of old, and that they do not use the shuttle, but conduct every thread of the woof with their fingers. He informs us that the usual size of the hyke is six yards long, and five or six feet broad, serving the Kabyle or Arab for a complete dress in the day: and, as they sleep in their raiment, as the Israelites did of old (Deut. xxiv. 13.), it likewise serves for his bed and covering in the night. It is a loose, but troublesome kind of garment, being frequently disconcerted and falling to the ground, so that the person who wears it is every moment obliged to tuck it up, and fold it anew around his body. This shews the great use of a girdle whenever they are engaged in any active employment, and the force of the Scripture injunction alluding to it, of *having our loins girded*, in order to set about it. The method of wearing these garments, with the use to which they are at other times put, in serving for coverlids to *their beds*, leads us to infer that the finer sort of them (such as are worn by the ladies and by persons of distinction) are the *peplus* of the ancients. Ruth's veil, which held six measures of barley (Ruth iii. 16), might be of the like fashion, and have served extraordinarily for the same use; as were also the clothes (*τα ἱματῖα*, the upper garments) of the Israelites (Exod. xii. 34.), in which they folded up their kneading-troughs: as the Moors, Arabs, and Kabyles do, to this day, things of the like burden and incum-

¹ On this subject see Capt. Light's *Travels in Egypt, &c.* p. 135., and Mr. Morier's *Second Journey in Persia*, p. 44. Chardin assures us, that the modern Dervises wear garments of coarse camel's hair, and also great leathern girdles. Harmer's *Obs.* vol. ii. p. 487.

brance in their hykes. Their burnoose also are often used upon these occasions. It is very probable, likewise, that the loose-folding garment, the *toga* of the Romans, was of this kind. For if the drapery of their statues is to instruct us, this is actually no other than the dress of the Arabs, when they appear in their hykes. The plaid of the Highlanders in Scotland is the very same.

"Instead of the *fibula* that was used by the Romans, the Arabs join together with thread or a wooden bodkin the two upper corners of this garment: and after having placed them first over one of their shoulders, they then fold the rest of it about their bodies. The outer fold serves them frequently instead of an apron, wherein they carry herbs, leaves, corn, &c. and may illustrate several allusions made thereto in Scripture; as gathering the lap full of wild gourds (2 Kings iv. 39.), rendering seven-fold, *giving good measure into the bosom* (Psalm cxxix. 7. Luke vi. 38.), &c. &c.

"The burnoose, which answers to our cloak, is often for warmth worn over these hykes. It is wove in one piece, and shaped exactly like the garment of the little god Telesphorus, viz. strait about the neck, with a cape for a cover to the head, and wide below like a cloak. Some of them are fringed round the bottom, like Parthenaspa's and Trajan's garment upon the basso-relievos of Constantine's arch. The burnoose, without the cape, seems to answer to the Roman *pallium*: and with it, the *bardocucullus*.

"If we except the cape of the burnoose, which is only occasionally used during a shower of rain, or in very cold weather, several Arabs and Kabyles go bare-headed all the year long, as Massinissa did of old, binding their temples only with a narrow fillet, to prevent their locks from being troublesome. As the antient *diadema* might originally serve for this purpose, so it appears from busts and medals to have been of no other fashion. But the Moors and Turks, with some of the principal Arabs, wear upon the crown of the head a small hemispherical cap of scarlet cloth. The turban, as they call a long narrow web of linen, silk, or muslin, is folded round the bottom of these caps, and very properly distinguishes, by the number and fashion of the folds, the several orders and degrees of soldiers, and sometimes of citizens, one from another. We find the same dress and ornament of the head, the *tinra*, as it was called, upon a number of medals, statues, and basso-relievos of the antients." The shaving of the *razor that is hired* (Isa. vii. 20.) is illustrated by the remarkable nicety with which the head is still shaved in the eastern countries. From the custom of wearing the turban, this operation is very frequently performed; and after it, the head is so smooth to the touch, that it seems as if hair had never grown there.¹

II. "Under the hyke some wear a close-bodied frock or tunic (*jil-libba* they call it) either with or without sleeves, which differs little from the Roman *tunica*, or habit in which the constellation Boötes

is usually painted. The *χιτών*, or coat¹ of our Saviour, *which was woven without seam from the top throughout* (John xix. 23.) might be of the like fashion. This too, no less than the hyke, is to be girded about their bodies, especially when they are engaged in any labour, exercise, or employment, at which time they usually throw off their burnoses and hykes, and remain only in their tunics: and of this kind, probably was the habit wherewith our Saviour might still be clothed, when he is said to *lay aside his garments* (*ἱματῖα*, *pallium scilicet et pepulum*; or burnoose and hyke), and *to take a towel and gird himself* (John xiii. 4.); as was likewise the fisher's coat which St. Peter girded about him, when he is said to be naked. (John xxi. 7.) This also was what the same Peter, at the command of the angel, might have girded upon him, before he is enjoined to cast his garment (*ἱματίον*) about him. Now the hyke or burnoose, or both, being probably at that time (*ἱματίον* or *ἱματῖα*) the proper dress, clothing, or habit of the eastern nations, as they still continue to be of the Kabyles and Arabs; when they laid them aside, or appeared without the one or the other, they might very properly be said to be undressed or naked; according to the eastern manner of expression. This same convenient and uniform shape of these garments, which are made to fit all persons, may well illustrate a variety of expressions and occurrences in Scripture, which to ignorant persons, too much misled by our fashions, may seem difficult to account for. Thus, among many other instances, we read, *that the goodly raiment of Esau was put upon Jacob*; that *Jonathan stript himself of his garments*; that *the best robe was brought out and put upon the prodigal son*; and that *raiment and changes of raiment were often given, and immediately put on* (as they still continue to be in these eastern nations), without such previous and occasional alterations as would be required amongst us in the like distribution or exchange of garments.

“ The girdles of these people are usually of worsted, very artfully woven into a variety of figures, such as the rich girdles of the virtuous virgins may be supposed to have been. (Prov. xxxi. 24.) They are made to fold several times about the body; one end of which being doubled back, and sewn along the edges, serves them for a purse, agreeable to the acceptance of the *ζώνη* in the Scriptures. The Turks make a farther use of these girdles, by fixing therein their knives and poniards: whilst the Hojias, *i. e.* the writers and secretaries, suspend in the same their inkhorns; a custom as old as the prophet Ezekiel, who mentions (ix. 2.) *a person clothed in white linen, with an inkhorn upon his loins*.

“ It is customary for the Turks and Moors to wear shirts² of

¹ *Χιτών* signifies the tunic or under-garment.

² “ The loose sleeve of the Arab shirt, as well as that of the outer garment, leaves the arm so completely free, that, in an instant, the left hand passing up the right arm makes it bare: and this is done, when a person — a soldier, for example, about to strike with the sword, — intends to give his right arm full play.” This usage illustrates Isa. lii. 10. *The Lord hath made bare his holy arm*, the figure in which passage is most lively. “ The

linen, or cotton, or gauze, underneath the tunics. But the Arabs wear nothing but woollen. There is a ceremony, indeed, in some Dou-wars, which obliges the bridegroom and the bride to wear each of them a shirt at the celebration of their nuptials; but then, out of a strange kind of superstition, they are not afterwards to wash them or put them off, whilst one piece hangs to another. The sleeves of these shirts are wide and open, without folds at the neck or wrist, as ours have; those particularly of the women, are oftentimes of the richest gauze, adorned with different-coloured ribbands, interchangeably sewed to each other.

“Neither are the Bedoweens accustomed to wear drawers; a habit, notwithstanding, which the citizens of both sexes constantly appear in, especially when they go abroad, or receive visits.

III. “The virgins are distinguished from the matrons, in having their drawers made of needle-work, striped silk and linen; just as Tamar’s garment is described. (2 Sam. xiii. 18.) But when the women are at home and in private, then their hykes are laid aside, and sometimes their tunics; and instead of drawers, they bind only a towel about their loins. A Barbary matron, in her undress, appears exactly in the same manner that Silanus does in the *Admiranda*.

“When these ladies appear in public, they always fold themselves up so closely in their hykes, that even without their veils, we could discover very little of their faces. But in the summer months, when they retire to their country seats, they walk abroad with less caution; though even then, upon the approach of a stranger, they always drop their veils, as Rebekah did upon the sight of Isaac. (Gen. xxiv. 65.) They all affect to have their hair, the instrument of their pride (Isaiah xxii. 12.), hang down to the ground, which, after they have collected it into one lock, they bind and plait with ribbands; a piece of finery disapproved of by the apostle. (1 Peter iii. 3.) Where nature has been less liberal in this ornament, there the defect is supplied by art, and foreign hair is procured to be interwoven with the natural. Absalom’s hair which was sold for 200 shekels (2 Sam. xiv. 26.) might have been applied to this use. After the hair is thus plaited, they proceed to dress their heads, by tying, above the lock I have described, a triangular piece of linen, adorned with various figures in needle-work. This, among persons of better fashion, is covered with a *sarmah*, as they call it (of the like sound with *השרנים*, Isaiah iii. 18.), which is made in the same triangular shape, of flexible gold or silver, artfully cut through and engraven in imitation of lace, and might therefore answer to the moon-like ornament mentioned above. A handkerchief of crape, gauze, silk, or painted linen, bound close over the *sarmah*, and falling afterwards carelessly upon the favourite lock, completes the head-dress of the Moorish ladies.

image represents Jehovah, as suddenly prepared to inflict some tremendous yet righteous judgment, — so effectual, that all the ends of the world shall see the salvation of God.” Jowett’s *Christian Researches in Syria*, p. 282.

"But none of these ladies think themselves completely dressed till they have tinged their eye-lids with *al-ka-hol*¹, i. e. *the powder of lead-ore*. Now, as this is performed by first dipping into this powder a small wooden bodkin of the thickness of a quill, and then drawing it afterwards through the eyelids, over the ball of the eye, we have a lively image of what the prophet Jeremiah (iv. 30.) may be supposed to mean by *renting the eyes* (not as we render it, *with painting*, but) *with כֹּהֵן lead-ore*. The sooty colour which in this manner is communicated to the eyes, is thought to add a wonderful gracefulness to persons of all complexions. The practice of it, no doubt is of great antiquity: for, besides the instances already taken notice of, we find, that when Jezebel is said to have painted her face (2 Kings ix. 30.), the original words are חָשְׁם בַּפּוֹד עֵינֶיהָ, i. e. *she adjusted, or set off, her eyes with the powder of lead-ore*. So likewise Ezek. xxiii. 40. is to be understood. *Karan-happuc*, i. e. *the horn of pouk or lead-ore*, the name of Job's youngest daughter, was relative to this custom or practice."² The modern Persians continue the practice of tinging their eye-lashes and eye-lids with antimony.

IV. The preceding learned and curious observations happily illustrate several parts of sacred writ. A passage in the Acts of the Apostles clearly fixes the difference between the ἱματίον or *Upper Garment*, and the χιτῶν or *Tunic*. During St. Peter's abode at Joppe, one Dorcas, a pious, amiable, and beneficent Christian woman, fell sick and died. The believers at Joppe having received information that Peter was at Lydda, despatched two messengers to him, intreating he would come to them without delay. On Peter's arrival they took him into an upper room where the corpse lay, round which a number of indigent widows stood bathed in tears, deploring the irreparable loss they had sustained, and shewing Peter a variety of (χιτῶνας καὶ ἱματία) *under and upper garments*, which Dorcas had made to clothe poor necessitous objects.³ It was these ἱματία or *upper garments*, consisting of a loose square piece of cloth wrapped round the body, which the vast multitude, which escorted Jesus in that triumphant procession into the capital, spread in the public road by way of carpet.⁴ Plu-

¹ This word is rendered by Golius and others, *Stibium*, *Antimonii species*, and sometimes *collirium*; the Hebrew כֹּהֵל *cahol* has the same interpretation; and the verb, כִּלְחַל joined with עֵינֶיךָ (Ezek. xviii. 40.) is rendered, *Thou paintest thine eyes*. כֹּהֵן is taken in the like signification, being rendered *antimonium*, *stibium* quo ad tingenda nigrore cilia, seu ad venustandos oculos, peculiariter utebantur; color subniger ex pulveribus stibii confectus. *Schinnell*. I. e. St. Jerome likewise upon these words כֹּהֵן אֲשֶׁן (Isa. liv. 11.) which we render (*I will lay*) *thy stones with fair colours*, takes notice, quod omnes præter LXX. similiter transtulerunt, viz. (sternum) in stibio, lapides tuos, in similitudinem comptæ mulieris, quæ oculos pingit stibio, ut pulchritudinem significet civitatis. כֹּהֵן therefore, and כֹּהֵל and *al-ka-hol*, denoting the same mineral substance or collyrium, it may be presumed that what is called to this day *ka-hol*, which is a rich lead ore pounded to an impalpable powder, was the mineral which they always made use of for painting the eyes.

² Dr. Shaw's Travels in Barbary, vol. i. pp. 403—414.

³ Acts ix. 39.

⁴ Ὁ δὲ πλεῖστος ὄχλος ἐστρώσαν (αὐτῶν) τὰ ἱματία ἐν τῇ ὁδῷ. Matt. xxi. 8.

tarch informs us, that the same affectionate respect and reverence was paid to Cato. "When Cato's expedition was ended, he was escorted not only with the customary praises and acclamations, but with tears and the tenderest endearments, the populace SPREADING THEIR GARMENTS UNDER HIS FEET wherever he walked, and with affectionate fervour kissing his hands, — testimonies of public respect which the Romans at that time shewed to very few of their commanders."¹ — A person divested of his upper garment, in the eastern language is styled *naked*, notwithstanding his being clothed in a tunic or under garment. Thus David is represented to dance naked before the ark in the sight of all Israel — not that we can suppose the monarch to be stripped naked and to be guilty of such public indecency and folly — the term only denotes that he had laid aside his upper garment.² In like manner it is said of Simon Peter, that when he heard it was the Lord, he immediately girt his fisher's coat about him, for he was naked. (John xxi. 7.) But this mode of speaking is not peculiar to the Easterns: it is of very frequent occurrence in the Greek and Roman classics.³ — That garment of our Saviour, which is described to be woven without seam from the top to the bottom, is very improperly in our translation called a coat: it was his tunic or under garment (χιτών), and probably was the elaborate work and affectionate gift of one of those pious and beneficent women who attended his ministry; as it is well known the fair sex made all the apparel of those times, and we find

¹ Επει δε τέλος ειχεν ἡ στρατεία τῷ Κατῶνι, προεπεμφθε, οὐκ ευχαις, ὁ κοινὸν εστιν, οὐδε εὔκαινοις, ἀλλὰ δακρυσι καὶ περιβολαῖς, ἀπληστοῖς, ὑποτιθέντων τὰ ἱμάτια τοῖς ποσὶν ἢ βαδίζοι, καὶ καταφιλοῦντων τὰς χεῖρας. Plutarch in Catone Jun. p. 402. Edit. Gr. 8vo. So also Clytemnestra orders her servant to spread garments in the road, in order to grace and honour the return of Agamemnon.

Δῶμαι, τι μελλεῖθ αἰς ἐπισταλταὶ τέλος
Πέδον κελευσίου στρωθῆναι πετασμασιν;
Εὐθὺς γενεσθῶ πορφύροστρωτος πορος
Ες δαμό. Æschyli Agamemnon, ver. 917. See also ver. 930.

See also Stanley on ver. 918. in Editione Pauw. 1745.

² 2 Sam. vi. 20. For it is expressly said, a few verses before that, when he thus danced before the Lord he was girded with a linen ephod, *ibid.* ver. 14.

³ The word γυμνός in Greek, and *nudus* in Latin, is frequently employed not to denote a person absolutely naked, but only stripped of his upper garment, or slightly clothed. *Nudus ara; sere nudus.* Virgil. Georg. I. ver. 299.

———— Πολὺς δ' ὄχλος
ΓΓΜΝΗ ὁμαρτε ὀρηκίαν ἔχων ΣΤΟΑΝ. Euripidis Rhesus, ver. 313.

Δελφύνην τοξοῖσι πελῶρεον ἐξεναρῖζεν
Κούρος εἰν ἐτὶ γυμνός.

Andron. Rhodius, lib. 2. ver. 709. Heolzlin. L. Bat. 1641.

Αμῶνις δ' ἔλε παμφανώσαν

Χαλκείην πληρεῖαν ὄσον ἐμπλεῖον ὕδυντων,

Καὶ ξίφος ἀμφ' αὐμὸν γυμνὸς δεμας. lib. iii. ver. 1280. Εὐμαρὺς ἀσπλούς
καὶ γυμνὸς τοὺς Ἀργεῖους ἀπεκτείνει. Polyani Stratag. p. 21. Οὕτως ἐγώ, ἐχὼ, γυμνὸς
ἦμιν ἐστήκα, ὑμεῖς δ' ἐνοπιοί. p. 35. Τα σώματα αὐτῶν δρᾶν μὲν οὐδὲν πλεον, ἅτε τὰς αὐτὰς
ἡμῖν χεῖρας ἔχοντες, πασχεῖν δὲ πολὺ πλεον, ἅτε καὶ μεγάλα καὶ γυμνα αὐτὰ, δύνησεται. Dion
Cassius, lib. xxxviii. p. 185. Reimar. Cicero says that Anthony came naked into the
Forum. Τὸν αὖ, ὦ πατέρες, γυμνὸς καὶ μεμυρῖσμενος εἰς τὴν ἀγορὰν εἰσῆλθε. Dion Cas-
sius, lib. xlv. p. 432. Hamburg 1750.

ladies of the first rank and distinction thus usefully employed.¹ When Jesus was seized, we read that a young man, excited by the tumult and disturbance that was made in the dead of night, hastily threw about him a linen garment, issued from the house to learn the occasion of this confusion, and followed the crowd for some time. But the officers, who apprehended Jesus, thinking him one of his companions, immediately seized him: upon which he left his garment in their hands, fled away naked, and thus narrowly made his escape from them.²

By the Mosaic constitution in Numb. xv. 37—40. the Israelites were enjoined to put a tassel to each of the four corners of the large piece of cloth, which they used as an upper garment, that they might remember all the commandments of the Lord to do them. A similar exhortation is recorded in Deut. vi. 8. compared with Exod. xiii. 16. But, in succeeding ages, these injunctions were abused to superstitious purposes; and the phylacteries, or strips of parchment with portions of the law inscribed upon them, (which they wore either bound round their wrists and their foreheads, or attached to the borders of their garments,) were converted to superstitious uses, and regarded as a kind of amulets, or charms, for preserving the person, and warding off evils. The practice of inscribing passages of the law upon the door-posts of their houses, is said to be still continued by the Mohammedans in Judæa and Syria.³

V. All the Grecian and Roman women, without distinction, wore their hair long.⁴ On this they lavished all their art, disposing it in various forms, and embellishing it with divers ornaments. In the antient medals, statues, and basso-relievos, we behold those plaited tresses which the apostles Peter and Paul⁵ condemn, and see those expensive and fantastic decorations which the ladies of those times bestowed upon their head-dress. This pride of braided and plaited tresses, this ostentation of jewels, this vain display of finery, the apostles interdict, as proofs of a light and little mind, and inconsistent with the modesty and decorum of Christian women. St. Paul, in his first Epistle to Timothy, in the passage where he condemns it, shews us in what the pride of female dress then consisted. *I will, says he, that women adorn themselves in modest apparel, with shamefacedness and sobriety, not with BROIDERED HAIR,*

¹ Andromache, Helen, Electra, Livia, the wife of Augustus, &c.

² Mark xiv. 51. Non de Apostolorum grege — sed ex villa aliqua horto proximâ, strepitu militum excitatus, et subito accurrens, ut conspiceret quid ageretur. Grotius ad Marc. xi. 51.

³ See Calmet's Dictionary of the Bible, vol. ii. voce *Phylacteries*.

⁴ Κούνην μὲν ἐπὶ τοῦ κρατὶ παραὼν ἐκτενω. Euripidis *Bacchæ*, v. r. 829. Βαθειαν κατακεχυμένοι τὴν κεφαλὴν γυναῖκες δίκην. They wear their hair long and flowing like women. Strabo, lib. iii. p. 154. Paris. 1620. Ἀπλως δ' ἡ περὶ τὰς κόμας φιλοτεχνία συνεστήκε περὶ τε ἀνδρῶν, καὶ κοῦραν τριχὺς ἀμφὶ δὲ, καὶ κοραῖς καὶ κοροῖς ἐστὶν οἰκεία. Strabo p. 467. Casaubon. Ὁ γὰρ Θεὸς τῇ μὲν γυναῖκα λείαν ἠθέλησεν εἶναι, αὐτοφῶν τῇ κομῇ μόνῃ ὥσπερ ἵππον τῇ χαίτῃ γανυομένην. Clem. Alex. *Pædag.* lib. iii. p. 224. Paris, 1529.

⁵ 1 Pet. iii. 3. Ἐμπλοκής τριχῶν — — Μελλε δὲ μακροὺς

Πλεξασθαι περικαμνοῦς. She was going to plait her long tresses. Androni Rhodins. lib. iii. v. 46. edit. 1641.

or GOLD, or PEARLS, or COSTLY ARRAY : but (which becometh women professing godliness) with good works. St. Peter in like manner ordains, that the adorning of the fair sex should not be so much that outward adorning of plaiting the hair, and of wearing of gold, or putting on of apparel : but let it be the hidden man of the heart, in that which is not corruptible, even the ornament of a meek and quiet spirit, which is in the sight of God of great price. On the contrary, the men in those times universally wore their hair short, as appears from all the books, medals and statues, that have been transmitted to us. This circumstance, which formed a principal distinction in dress between the sexes, happily illustrates the following passage in St. Paul (1 Cor. xi. 14, 15.), *Doth not even nature itself teach you, that if a MAN have LONG HAIR¹, it is a SHAME to him. But if a WOMAN have LONG HAIR, it is a GLORY to her : for her hair is given her for a covering.*

The Jewish and Grecian ladies, moreover, never appeared in public without a veil.² Hence St. Paul severely censures the Corinthian women for appearing in the church without a veil, and praying to God uncovered, by which they threw off the decency and modesty of the sex, and exposed themselves and their religion to the satire and calumny of the heathens. The whole passage beautifully and clearly exhibits to the reader's ideas the distinguishing customs which then prevailed in the different dress and appearance of the sexes. (Compare 1 Cor. xi. 3—16.)³

Long hair was in great esteem among the Jews. The hair of Absalom's head was of such prodigious length, that in his flight, when defeated in battle, as he was riding with great speed under the trees, it caught hold of one of the boughs ; in consequence of which he was lifted off his saddle, and his mule running from beneath him, left him suspended in the air, unable to extricate himself. (2 Sam. xviii. 9.) The plucking off the hair was a great disgrace among the Jews ; and, therefore, Nehemiah punished in this manner those Jews who had been guilty of irregular marriages, in order to put them to the greater shame. (Neh. xiii. 25.)

The Jews wore their beards very long, as we may see from the example of the ambassadors, whom David sent to the king of the Ammonites, and whom that ill-advised king caused to be shaved by way of affront. (2 Sam. x. 4.) And as the shaving of them was accounted a great indignity, so the cutting off half their beards, which made them still more ridiculous, was a great addition to the affront, in a country where beards were held in such great veneration.

In the East, especially among the Arabs and Turks, the beard is even now reckoned the greatest ornament of a man, and is not trimmed or shaven, except in cases of extreme grief. With them a

¹ Ἀρσενιν οὐκ ἐπέοικε κομῇ. — Phocylides, ver. 290.

² Κεκαλυμμένοι τα πάντα τὰ κεφάλια ἐν οἰκοῖς τυχού. Cl. Alexand. Præd. lib. iii. p. 256. Paris. Again, the same father giving directions concerning the fair sex, says, Οὐδὲν γὰρ μέρος ἐστὶν ἀνεκάλυπτον, ὑπαικος, εὐρετες, p. 204. edit. 1629.

³ Dr. Harmer's Introduction, vol. ii. pp. 98—103.

shaven beard is reputed to be more unsightly than the loss of a nose; and a man, who possesses a reverend beard, is in their opinion, incapable of acting dishonestly. If they wish to affirm any thing with peculiar solemnity, they swear by their beard; and when they express their good wishes for any one, they make use of the ensuing formula — *God preserve thy blessed beard!* From these instances, which serve to elucidate many other passages of the Bible besides that above quoted, we may readily understand the full extent of the disgrace wantonly inflicted by the Ammonitish king, in cutting off half the beards of David's ambassadors. Niebuhr relates, that if any one cut off his beard, after having recited a *satha*, or prayer, which is considered in the nature of a vow never to cut it off, he is liable to be severely punished, and also to become the laughing-stock of those who profess his faith.¹ The same traveller has also recorded an instance of a modern Arab prince having treated a Persian envoy in the same manner as Hanun treated David's ambassadors, which brought a powerful army upon him in the year 1765.² The not trimming of the beard was one of the indications by which the Jews expressed their mourning. (2 Sam. xix. 24.)

VI. Their legs were bare, and on the feet they wore sandals, or soles tied in various manners around the foot, which they pulled off on entering a sacred place (Josh. v. 15.), as the Mohammedans do to this day. This practice is also commonly observed in visits to great men; the sandals or slippers being pulled off at the door, and either left there or given to a servant to bear. It was customary among the Romans to lay aside their shoes when they went to a banquet. The servants took them off their master's feet when they entered the house, and returned them when they departed to their own habitations. Among the Jews, when a guest arrived, he was immediately conducted into a room, the servants untied his sandals, and were employed in washing his feet from the defilement of mire and dust. (Gen. xviii. 4. xix. 2. xxiv. 32. Luke vii. 44.) As this was usually the office of the lowest order of servants, this well known custom will particularly illustrate two passages of sacred Scripture. Referring to this usage, the Baptist told those who were deputed from the Sanhedrin to interrogate him, whether he were the Messiah, who was then the object of universal expectation, — that there came one after him whose shoe-latchet he was not worthy to stoop down to unloose (Luke iii. 16.); meaning, that the Messiah, who had now made his appearance among them, was a person of such dignity of nature and character, that he did not deem himself worthy of performing for him the most humble and servile office. Another passage of Scripture, on which the knowledge of this custom sheds light and beauty, is that in which our Lord is represented as abruptly rising from the paschal supper — stripping off his upper garment — girding himself with a towel, as the servants of those times were — pouring water into a basin

¹ Description de l'Arabie, p. 61.

² Ibid.

washing his disciples' feet (John xiii. 4, 5.), and wiping them with the towel he had tied about him. Proceeding in a regular order, when he came to Simon Peter, the latter said to him : *Lord, thou shalt never wash my feet* — you shall never debase and degrade yourself to perform to me such an office — the office of the meanest, lowest slave. After he had washed their feet, put on his clothes, and resumed his place at table, he then addressed himself to them. Do you know the instruction I intended to convey to you by this action? You honour me with the titles of your instructor and master, and the appellations are just, and due to my character. If I then your exalted instructor have demeaned myself to wash your feet, you ought in like manner to condescend to perform the humblest offices one to another. The language of this public figurative action, which thus taught them humility in the most amiable and condescending manner, would seal stronger impressions upon their minds than all the verbal instructions and didactic precepts which could have been inculcated.

VII. Although the garments antiently worn by the Jews were few in number, yet their ornaments were many, especially those worn by the women. The prophet Isaiah, when reproaching the daughters of Sion with their luxury and vanity, gives us a particular account of their female ornaments. (Isa. iii. 16—24.) The most remarkable were these : The *nose-jewels* (ver. 21.), or as Bishop Lowth translates them, *the jewels of the nostril* : they were rings set with jewels, pendent from the nostrils, like ear-rings from the ears, by holes bored to receive them. Ezekiel, enumerating the common ornaments of women of the first rank, distinctly mentions the nose-jewel (Ez. xvi. 12. marg. rendering) ; and in an elegant Proverb of Solomon (Prov. xi. 22.), there is a manifest allusion to this kind of ornament, which shews that it was used in his time. Nose-jewels were one of the love-tokens presented to Rebecca by the servant of Abraham in the name of his master. (Gen. xxiv. 22. where the word translated *ear-ring* ought to have been rendered *nose-jewel*.)¹ However singular this custom may appear to us, modern travellers attest its prevalence in the East among women of all ranks.² The *ear-ring* was an ornament worn by the men as well as the women, as appears from Gen. xxxv. 4. and Exod. xxxii. 2. ; and by other nations as well as the Jews, as is evident from Numb. xxxi. 50. and Judg. viii. 24. It should seem that this ornament had been heretofore used for idolatrous purposes, since Jacob, in the injunction which he gave to his household, commanded them to *put away the strange gods that were in their hands, and the ear-rings that were in their ears*. (Gen. xxxv. 2. 4.)³

¹ Bp. Lowth on Isaiah, vol. ii. p. 47.

² Ibid. p. 48. Harmer's Observations, vol. iv. pp. 316—320.

³ It is probable that the ear-rings or jewels, worn by Jacob's household, had been consecrated to superstitious purposes, and worn perhaps as a kind of amulet. It appears that rings, whether in the ears or nose, were first superstitiously worn in honour of false gods, and probably of the sun, whose circular form they might be designed to

Another female ornament was a *chain* about the neck (Ezek. xvi. 11.), which appears to have been used also by the men, as may be inferred from Prov. i. 9. This was a general ornament in the eastern countries: thus Pharaoh is said to have put a chain of gold about Joseph's neck (Gen. xli. 42.); and Belshazzar did the same to Daniel (Dan. v. 29.); and it is mentioned with several other things as part of the Midianitish spoil. (Numb. xxxi. 50.) Further, the arms or wrists were adorned with *bracelets*: these are in the catalogue of the female ornaments used by the Jews (Ezek. xvi. 11.), and were part of Rebecca's present. They were also worn by men of any considerable figure, for we read of Judah's bracelets (Gen. xxxviii. 18.), and of those worn by Saul. (2 Sam. i. 10.) Lastly, the *ring* is noticed as an ornament for the finger. (Isa. iii. 21.) This is mentioned in the parable of the prodigal, where the father orders a ring for his returning son (Luke xv. 22.), and also by the apostle James. (ii. 2.) The compliment of a royal ring was a token that the person, to whom it was given, was invested with power and honour; thus Pharaoh took off his ring from his hand, and put it on Joseph's. (Gen. xli. 42.) And Ahasuerus plucked off his ring from his finger, and bestowed it on Haman (Esther iii. 10.), and afterwards on Mordecai. (chap. viii. 2.) We read in Exod. xxxviii. 8. of the women's *looking-glasses*, which were not made of what is now called glass, but of polished brass, otherwise these Jewish women could not have contributed them towards the making of the brazen laver, as is there mentioned. In later times, mirrors were made of other polished metal, which at best could only reflect a very obscure and imperfect image. Hence Saint Paul, in a very apt and beautiful simile, describes the defective and limited knowledge of the present state by that opaque and dim representation of objects which those mirrors exhibited. Now we see δι' εσπτρου by means of a mirror¹, darkly; not through a glass, as in our version of 1 Cor. xiii. 12.; for telescopes, as every one knows, are a very late invention.

To the articles of apparel above enumerated there were also added *tinkling ornaments* about the feet. Most of these articles of female apparel are still in use in the East. The East Indian

represent. Maimonides mentions rings and vessels of this kind, with the image of the sun, moon, &c. impressed on them. These superstitious objects were concealed by Jacob in a place known only to himself. Grotius on Gen. xxxv. 4. Calmet's Dictionary, vol. ii. voce *Ring*.

¹ The Εσπτρον, or metallic mirror, is mentioned by the author of the apocryphal book of the Wisdom of Solomon (vii. 26.); who, speaking of Wisdom, says that she is the brightness of the everlasting light and ΕΞΟΙΤΤΟΝ ακαλιδωτον the u. spotted MIRROR of the power of God and the image of his goodness. The author, also of the book of Ecclesiasticus, exhorting to put no trust in an enemy, says: Though he humble himself and go crouching, yet take good heed and beware of him; and thou shalt be unto him ως εκμεμαχως ΕΞΟΙΤΤΟΝ, as if thou hadst wiped a MIRROR, and thou shalt know that his rust hath not altogether been wiped away. (Eccclus. xii. 11.) The mention of rust in this place manifestly indicates the metallic composition of the mirror; which is frequently mentioned in the ancient classic writers. See particularly Anacreon, Ode xi. 3. and xx. 5, 6.

women, who accompanied the Indo-Anglican army from India to Egypt, wore large rings in their noses, and silver cinctures about their ancles and wrists, their faces being painted above the eyebrows. In Persia and Arabia also it is well known that the women paint their faces and wear gold and silver rings about their ancles, which are full of little bells that tinkle as they walk or trip along.¹ The licensed prostitutes whom Dr. Richardson saw at Ghench (a large commercial town of Upper Egypt), were attired in a similar manner.²

It was a particular injunction of the Mosaic law that *the women shall not wear that which pertaineth unto a man, neither shall a man put on a woman's garment.* (Deut. xxii. 5.) This precaution was very necessary against the abuses which are the usual consequences of such disguises. For a woman drest in a man's clothes will not be restrained so readily by that modesty which is the peculiar ornament of her sex; and a man drest in a woman's habit may without fear and shame go into companies where, without this disguise, shame and fear would hinder his admittance, and prevent his appearing.

In hot countries, like a considerable part of Palestine, travellers inform us, that the greatest difference imaginable subsists between the complexions of the women. Those of any condition seldom go abroad, and are ever accustomed to be shaded from the sun, with the greatest attention. Their skin is, consequently, fair and beautiful. But women in the lower ranks of life, especially in the country, being from the nature of their employments more exposed to the scorching rays of the sun, are, in their complexions, remarkably tawny and swarthy. Under such circumstances, a high value would of course be set, by the eastern ladies, upon the fairness of their complexions, as a distinguishing mark of their superior quality, no less than as an enhancement of their beauty. We perceive, therefore, how natural was the bride's self-abusing reflection in Cant. i. 5, 6, respecting her tawny complexion, (caused by exposure to servile employments,) among the fair daughters of Jerusalem; who, as attendants on a royal marriage (we may suppose) were of the highest rank.³

VIII. *Seals or Signets* were commonly worn by both sexes. Pliny⁴ states that the use of them was rare at the time of the Trojan war.

¹ Dr. Clarke's Travels, vol. v. p. 520. 8vo. edit. Morier's Second Journey in Persia, p. 145. Ward's History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. ii. pp. 32, 33.

² "This is the only place in Egypt, where we saw the women of the town decked out in all their finery. They were of all nations and of all complexions, and regularly licensed, as in many parts of Europe, to exercise their profession. Some of them were highly painted, and gaily and bravely dressed with costly neck-laces, rings in their noses and in their ears, and bracelets on their wrists and arms. They sat at the doors of their houses, and called on the passengers as they went by, in the same manner as we read in the book of Tobit, ch. vi. 6--22." (Richardson's Travels, vol. i. p. 260.) The same custom was observed by Pitts, a century before at Cairo. See his Account of the Mahometans, p. 29.

³ Eccl. i. 7. Cant. i. 5. Song of Solomon, p. 36. ⁴ Nat. Hist. lib. xxxiii. c. 1.

But among the Hebrews they were of much greater antiquity: for we read that Judah left his *signet* as a pledge with Tamar. (Gen. xxxviii. 25.) The antient Hebrews wore their seals or signets, either as rings on their fingers, or as bracelets on their arms, a custom which still obtains in the East. Thus the bride in the Canticles (viii. 6.) desires that the spouse would wear her as a seal on his arm. Occasionally, they were worn upon the bosom by means of an ornamental chain or ligature fastened round the neck. To this custom there is an allusion in Prov. vi. 21. The expression to *set as a seal upon the heart, as a seal upon the arm* (Cant. viii. 6.), is a scriptural expression denoting the cherishing of a true affection; with the exhibition of those constant attentions, which bespeak a real attachment. Compare also Hag. ii. 23. Jer. xxxii. 24.

IX. To change habits and wash one's clothes were ceremonies used by the Jews, in order to dispose them for some holy action which required particular purity. Jacob, after his return from Mesopotamia, required his household to *change their garments, and go with him to sacrifice at Bethel*. (Gen. xxxv. 2, 3.) Moses commanded the people to dispose themselves for the reception of the law by purifying and washing their clothes. (Exod. xix. 10.) On the other hand, the rending of one's clothes is an expression frequently used in Scripture, as a token of the highest grief. Reuben was the first we read of, who, to denote his great sorrow for Joseph, *rent his clothes* (Gen. xxxvii. 29.); Jacob did the like (ver. 34.); and Ezra, to express the concern and uneasiness of his mind, and the apprehensions he entertained of the divine displeasure, on account of the people's unlawful marriages, is said to rend his garments and his mantle (Ezra ix. 3.); that is, both his inner and upper garment: this was also an expression of indignation and holy zeal: the high-priest rent his clothes, pretending that our Saviour had spoken blasphemy. (Matt. xxvi. 65.) And so did the apostles, when the people intended to pay them divine honours. (Acts xiv. 14.)

The garments of mourning among the Jews were chiefly sackcloth and haircloth. The last sort was the usual clothing of the prophets, for they were continual penitents by profession: and therefore Zechariah speaks of the rough garments of the false prophets, which they also wore to deceive. (Zech. xiii. 4.) Jacob was the first we read of that put sackcloth on his loins, as a token of mourning for Joseph (Gen. xxxvii. 34.), signifying thereby that since he had lost his beloved son, he considered himself as reduced to the meanest and lowest condition of life.

X. A prodigious number of sumptuous and magnificent habits was in antient times regarded as a necessary and indispensable part of their treasures. Horace, speaking of Lucullus (who had pillaged Asia, and first introduced Asiatic refinements among the Romans), says, that, some persons having waited upon him to request the loan of a *hundred* suits out of his wardrobe for the Roman

stage, he exclaimed — “A hundred suits ! how is it possible for me to furnish such a number ? However, I will look over them and send you what I have.” — After some time, he writes a note, and tells them he had FIVE THOUSAND, to the whole or part of which they were welcome.¹

This circumstance of amassing and ostentatiously displaying in wardrobes numerous and superb suits, as indispensable to the idea of wealth, and forming a principal part of the opulence of those times, will elucidate several passages of Scripture. The patriarch Job, speaking of riches in his time, says :— *Though they heap up silver as the dust, and prepare raiment as the clay.* (Job xxvii. 16.) Joseph gave his brethren changes of raiment, but to Benjamin he gave three hundred pieces of silver, and *five changes of raiment.* (Gen. xlv. 22.)² In allusion to this custom our Lord, when describing the short duration and perishing nature of earthly treasures, represents them as subject to the depredations of moth. *Lay not up for yourselves TREASURES on earth where moth and rust do corrupt.* (Matt. vi. 19.) The illustrious apostle of the Gentiles, when appealing to the integrity and fidelity with which he had discharged his sacred office, said — *I have coveted no man's gold, or silver, or APPAREL.* (Acts xx. 33.) The apostle James, likewise (just in the same manner as the Greek and Roman writers, when they are particularising the opulence of those times), specifies gold, silver, and garments, as the constituents of riches. — *Go to now, ye rich men ; weep and howl for your miseries that shall come upon you. Your gold and silver is cankered, and your GARMENTS are moth-eaten.* (James v. 1, 3, 2.) It appears from Psal. xlv. 8. that the wardrobes of the East were plentifully perfumed with aromatics : and in Cant. iv. 11. the fragrant odour of the bride's garments is compared to the odour of Lebanon. With robes thus perfumed Rebecca furnished her son Jacob, when she sent him to obtain by stratagem his father's blessing. *And he (Isaac) smelled the smell (or fragrance) of his raiment and blessed him, and said, See ! the smell of my son is as the smell of a field which the Lord hath blessed.* (Gen. xxvii. 27.)³ In process of time, this exquisite fragrance was figuratively applied to the moral qualities of the mind ; of which we have an example in the Song of Solomon, i. 3.

Like the fragrance of thine own sweet perfumes
Is thy name, — a perfume poured forth.⁴

¹ Horat. Epist. lib. i. ep. 6. ver. 40—44.

² Presenting garments is one of the modes of complimenting persons in the East. See several illustrative instances in Burder's Oriental Literature, vol. i. pp. 93, 94.

³ Dr. Good has quoted the following passage from Moschus, in which the same idea occurs with singular exactness :

— του αμβροτος οδμη
Τελαφι και λειμωνος εκαιντο λαρον αυτην.
Whose heavenly fragrance far exceeds
The fragrance of the breathing meads.

Idyl. B. 91.

Dr. Good's Translation of Solomon's Song, p. 123.

⁴ Dr. Good's version.

CHAPTER III.

JEWISH CUSTOMS RELATING TO MARRIAGE.

I. *Marriage accounted a Sacred Obligation by the Jews.*—II. *Polygamy tolerated.*—Condition of Concubines.—III. *Nuptial Contract, and Espousals.*—IV. *Nuptial Cceremonies.*—V. *Divorces.*

I. **MARRIAGE** was considered by the Jews as a matter of the strictest obligation. They understood literally and as a precept, these words uttered to our first parents, *be fruitful and multiply and replenish the earth.* (Gen. i. 28.) The prospect they had, and their continual expectation of the coming of the Messiah, added great weight to this obligation. Every one lived in the hopes that this great blessing should attend their posterity; and therefore they thought themselves bound to further the expectance of him, by adding to the race of mankind, of whose seed he was to be born, and whose happiness he was to promote, by that temporal kingdom for which they looked, upon his appearance.

Hence celibacy was esteemed a great reproach in Israel: for, besides that they thought none could live a single life without great danger of sin, they esteemed it a counteracting of the divine counsels in the promise, that *the seed of the woman should bruise the head of the serpent.* On this account it was that Jephthah's daughter deplored her virginity, because she thus deprived her father of the hopes which he might entertain from heirs procreated by her, by whom his name might survive in Israel, and consequently, of his expectation of having the Messiah to come of his seed, which was the general desire of all the Israelitish women. For the same reason also sterility was regarded among the Jews (as it is to this day among the modern Egyptians¹;) as one of the greatest misfortunes that could befall any woman, insomuch that to have a child, though the woman immediately died thereupon, was accounted a less affliction than to have none at all: and to this purpose we may observe, that the midwife comforts Rachel in her labour (even though she knew her to be at the point of death) in these terms, *fear not, for thou shalt bear this son also.* (Gen. xxxv. 17.)

From this expectation proceeded their exactness in causing the brother of a husband, who died without issue, to marry the widow he left behind, and the disgrace that attended his refusing so to do :

¹ The most importunate applicants to Dr. Richardson for medical advice, were those who consulted him on account of sterility, which in Egypt (he says) is still considered the greatest of all evils. "The unfortunate couple believe that they are bewitched, or under the curse of heaven, which they fancy the physician has the power to remove. It is in vain that he declares the insufficiency of the healing art to take away their reproach. The parties hang round, dunning and importuning him, for the love of God, to prescribe for them, that they may have children like other people. 'Give me children, or I die,' said the fruitful Sarah to her husband; 'Give me children, or I curse you,' say the barren Egyptians to their physicians." Dr. Richardson's Travels along the Mediterranean, &c. vol. ii. p.106.

for, as the eldest son of such a marriage became the adopted child of the deceased, that child and the posterity flowing from him, were, by a fiction of law, considered as the real offspring and heirs of the deceased brother. This explains the words of Isaiah, that *seven women should take hold of one man, saying, we will eat our own bread, and wear our own apparel, only let us be called by thy name to take away our reproach.* (Isa. iv. 1.) This was the reason also why the Jews commonly married very young. A virgin was ordinarily married at the age of puberty, that is, twelve years complete, whence her husband is called the guide of her youth (Prov. ii. 17.), and the husband of her youth (Joel i. 8.); and the not giving of maidens in marriage is in Psal. lxxviii. 63. represented as one of the effects of the divine anger towards Israel. In like manner, among the Hindoos, the delaying of the marriage of daughters is to this day regarded as a great calamity and disgrace.¹

II. From the first institution of marriage it is evident that God gave but one woman to one man: and if it be a true, as it is a common observation, that there are every where more males than females born in the world, it follows that those men certainly act contrary to the laws both of God and nature, who have more than one wife at the same time. But though God, as supreme law-giver, had a power to dispense with his own laws, and actually did so with the Jews for the more speedy peopling of the world, yet it is certain there is no such toleration under the Christian dispensation, and therefore their example is no rule at this day. The first who violated this primitive law of marriage was Lamech, who *took unto him two wives.* (Gen. iv. 19.) Afterwards we read that Abraham had concubines. (Gen. xxv. 6.) And his practice was followed by the other patriarchs, which at last grew to a most scandalous excess in Solomon's and Rehoboam's days. The word concubine in most Latin authors, and even with us at this day, signifies a woman, who, though she be not married to a man, yet lives with him as his wife: but in the sacred writings it is understood in another sense. There it means a lawful wife, but of a lower order and of an inferior rank to the mistress of the family; and therefore she had equal right to the marriage-bed with the chief wife; and her issue was reputed legitimate in opposition to bastards; but in all other respects these concubines were inferior to the primary wife; for they had no authority in the family, nor any share in household government. If they had been servants in the family, before they came to be concubines, they continued to be so afterwards, and in the same subjection to their mistress as before. The dignity of these primary wives gave their children the preference in the succession, so that the children of concubines did not inherit their father's fortune, except upon the failure of the children by these more honourable wives: and therefore it was, that the father commonly provided for the children by these concubines in his own

¹ Warton's History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. ii. p. 327.

lifetime, by giving them a portion of his cattle and goods, which the Scripture calls *gifts*. Thus Sarah was Abraham's primary wife, by whom he had Isaac, who was the heir of his wealth. But besides her, he had two concubines, namely, Hagar and Keturah; by these he had other children whom he distinguished from Isaac, for it is said *he gave them gifts and sent them away while he yet lived*. (Gen. xxv. 5, 6.) In Mesopotamia, as appears from Gen. xxix. 26., the younger daughter could not be given in marriage "before the first-born" or elder, and the same practice is said to continue in Hindostan to this day, where it is considered criminal to give the younger daughter in marriage before the elder, or for a younger son to marry while his elder brother remains unmarried.¹

In the first ages of the world, marriages between brothers and sisters were necessary, because of the small number of persons then in the world. After mankind were become numerous, such marriages were unlawful, and were prohibited under great penalties. However, the patriarchs long espoused their near relations, even after the world was greatly peopled, intending by this to avoid alliances with families corrupted by the worship of false gods; or to preserve in their own families the worship of the true God, and the maintenance of the true religion of which they were the depositories. For this reason Abraham married his sister or niece Sarah; and also sent his steward Eliezer, to fetch a wife for his son from among the daughters of his nephews; and Jacob espoused the daughters of his uncle.

III. No formalities appear to have been used by the Jews — at least none were enjoined to them by Moses — in joining man and wife together. Mutual consent, followed by consummation, was deemed sufficient. The manner in which a daughter was demanded in marriage is described in the case of Shechem, who asked Dinah the daughter of Jacob in marriage (Gen. xxxiv. 6—12.); and the nature of the contract, together with the mode of solemnizing the marriage, is described in Gen. xxiv. 50, 51, 57, 67. There was indeed a previous espousal² or betrothing, which was a solemn promise of marriage, made by the man and woman each to the other, at such a distance of time as they agreed upon. This was sometimes done by writing, sometimes by the delivery of a piece of silver to the bride in presence of witnesses, as a pledge of their mutual engagements. We are informed by the Jewish writers that kisses were given in token of the espousals (to which custom there appears to be an allusion in Canticles i. 2.), after which the

¹ Paxton's *Illustrations of Scripture*, vol. iii. p. 129. 2d edit.

² "Before the giving of the law (saith Maimonides), if the man and woman had agreed about marriage, he brought her into his house and privately married her. But, after the giving of the law, the Israelites were commanded, that if any were minded to take a woman for his wife, he should receive her, first, before witnesses, and henceforth let her be to him to wife, — as it is written, 'If any one take a wife.' This taking is one of the affirmative precepts of the law, and is called 'espousing.'" Lightfoot's *Horæ Hebrææ* on Matt. i. 18. (Works, vol. xi. p. 18. 8vo. edit. 1823.)

parties were reckoned as man and wife.¹ After such espousals were made (which was generally when the parties were young) the woman continued with her parents several months, if not some years (at least till she was arrived at the age of twelve) before she was brought home, and her marriage consummated.² That it was the practice to betroth the bride some time before the consummation of the marriage, is evident from Deut. xx. 7. Thus we find that Samson's wife remained with her parents a considerable time after espousals (Judg. xiv. 8.); and we are told that the Virgin Mary was visibly with child before she and her intended husband came together. (Matt. i. 18.) If, during the time between the espousals and the marriage the bride was guilty of any criminal correspondence with another person, contrary to the fidelity she owed to her bridegroom, she was treated as an adulteress: and thus the holy virgin, after she was betrothed to Joseph, having conceived our blessed Saviour, might, according to the rigour of the law, have been punished as an adulteress, if the angel of the Lord had not acquainted Joseph with the mystery of the incarnation.

Among the Jews, and generally, throughout the East, marriage was considered as a sort of purchase, which the man made of the woman he desired to marry; and therefore in contracting marriages, as the wife brought a portion to the husband, so the husband was obliged to give her or her parents money or presents in lieu of this portion. This was the case between Hamor, the father of Shechem, and the sons of Jacob, with relation to Dinah (Gen. xxxiv. 12.); and Jacob, having no money, offered his uncle Laban seven years' service³, which must have been equivalent to a large sum. (Gen. xxix. 18.) Saul did not give his daughter Michal to David, till after he had received a hundred foreskins of the Philistines. (1 Sam. xviii. 25.) Hosea bought his wife at the price of fifteen pieces of silver, and a measure and a half of barley. (Hos. iii. 2.) The same custom also obtained among the Greeks and other antient nations⁴; and it is to this day, the practice in several eastern countries, particularly among the Druses, Turks, and Christians, who inhabit the country of Haouran, and also among the modern Scenite Arabs, or those who dwell in tents.⁵

IV. It appears from both the Old and New Testaments, that the

¹ Dr. Gill's Comment. on Sol. Song, 1. 2. The same ceremony was practised among the primitive Christians. (Bingham's Antiquities, book xxii. c. lii. sect. 6.) By the civil law, indeed, the kiss is made a ceremony in some respects, of importance to the validity of the nuptial contract. (Cod. Justin. lib. v. tit. 3. de Donation. ante nuptias, leg. 16.) Fry's Translation of the Canticles, p. 33.

² The same practice obtains in the East Indies to this day. Ward's History of the Hindoos, vol. ii. p. 334.

³ The Crim Tartars, who are in poor circumstances, serve an apprenticeship for their wives, and are then admitted as part of the family. Mrs. Holderness's Notes, p. 8. First Edit.

⁴ Potter's Greek Antiquities, vol. ii. p. 279.

⁵ Burckhardt's Travels in Syria, &c. pp. 298. 385. De la Roche, Voyage dans la Palestine, p. 222. See several additional instances in Burder's Oriental Literature, vol. i.

Jews celebrated the nuptial solemnity with great festivity and splendour. Many of the rites and ceremonies observed by them on this occasion, were common both to the Greeks and Romans. We learn from the Misna, that the Jews were accustomed to put crowns or garlands on the heads of newly married persons; and it should seem from the Song of Solomon (iii. 11.) that the ceremony of putting it on, was performed by one of the parents. Among the Greeks the bride was crowned by her mother¹; and among them, as well as among the orientals, and particularly the Hebrews, it was customary to wear crowns or garlands, not merely of leaves or flowers, but also of gold or silver, in proportion to the rank of the person presenting them; but those prepared for the celebration of a nuptial banquet, as being a festivity of the first consequence, were of peculiar splendour and magnificence. Chaplets of flowers only constituted the nuptial crowns of the Romans. Some writers have supposed that the nuptial crowns and other ornaments of a bride, are alluded to in Ezek. xvi. 8—12.

After the connubial union was solemnly ratified and attested, and the religious part of it concluded, it was customary for the bridegroom, as among the Greeks and Romans, in the evening to conduct his spouse from her friends to his own home with all the pomp, brilliancy, and joy that could be crowded into the procession. It was usual for the bridegroom to invite his young female friends and relations to grace this procession, and to add numbers and lustre to his retinue: these, adorned in robes suitable to the occasion, took lamps, and waited in a company near the house, till the bride and bridegroom with their friends issued forth, whom they welcomed with the customary congratulations—then joined in the train, and with songs and acclamations, and every demonstration of joy, advanced to the bridegroom's house, where an entertainment was provided, according to the circumstances of the united pair. This nuptial feast was adorned and celebrated only by a select company of the bride and bridegroom's friends—no strangers were admitted—by these the evening was spent in all the convivial enjoyment, which social happiness, their approbation of the late union, and the splendour of such a festivity could inspire. These several ceremonies and circumstances here recorded, concerning the manner in which the Jews solemnised their nuptials, are alluded to in that beautiful parable (Matt. xxv.), in which our Saviour represents ten virgins taking their lamps and going in a company to meet the bridegroom. Five of these were endued with prudence and discretion: the other five were thoughtless and inconsiderate. The thoughtless took indeed their lamps, but had not the precaution to replenish them with oil. But the prudent, mindful of futurity, carried oil with them in vessels. Having waited a long time for the bridegroom, and he not appearing, they all, fatigued with tedious expectation, sunk in profound repose. But lo! at midnight they

¹ Dr. Good's Translation of Solomon's Song, p. 107.

were suddenly alarmed with a cry—the bridegroom, the bridegroom is coming! *Go ye out to meet* and congratulate him. Roused with this unexpected proclamation they *all arose and trimmed their lamps*. The thoughtless then began to solicit the others to impart to them some of their oil—telling them that their lamps were entirely extinguished. To these intreaties the prudent answered—that they had only provided a sufficient quantity for their own use, and therefore advised them to go and purchase oil of those who sold it. They departed accordingly—but during their absence the bridegroom came, and the prudent virgins, being prepared for his reception, went along with him to the nuptial entertainment.—The doors were then immediately shut. After some time the others came to the door, and supplicated earnestly for admission. But the bridegroom repulsed them—telling them, he did not know them, and would not admit any strangers.¹

From another parable, in which a great king is represented as making a most magnificent entertainment at the marriage of his son, we learn that all the guests, who were honoured with an invitation, were expected to be dressed in a manner suitable to the splendour of such an occasion, and as a token of just respect to the new-married couple—and that after the procession in the evening from the bride's house was concluded, the guests, before they were admitted into the hall where the entertainment was served up, were taken into an apartment and viewed, that it might be known if any stranger had intruded, or if any of the company were apparelled in raiments unsuitable to the genial solemnity they were going to celebrate; and such, if found, were expelled the house with every mark of ignominy and disgrace. From the knowledge of this custom the following passage receives great light and lustre. When the king came in to see the guests, he discovered among them a person who had not on a wedding garment.—He called him and said: Friend, how came you to intrude into my palace in a dress so unsuitable to this occasion? The man was struck dumb—he had no apology to offer for this disrespectful neglect. The king

¹ Mr. Ward has given the following description of a Hindoo wedding, which furnishes a striking parallel to the parable of the wedding feast in the Gospel. "At a marriage, the procession of which I saw some years ago, the bridegroom came from a distance, and the bride lived at Serampore, to which place the bridegroom was to come by water. After waiting two or three hours, at length, near midnight, it was announced, as if in the very words of Scripture, behold the bridegroom cometh, go ye out to meet him. All the persons employed, now lighted their lamps, and ran with them in their hands to fill up their stations in the procession; some of them had lost their lights, and were unprepared, but it was then too late to seek them, and the cavalcade moved forward to the house of the bride, at which place the company entered a large and splendidly illuminated area, before the house, covered with an awning, where a great multitude of friends, dressed in their best apparel, were seated upon mats. The bridegroom was carried in the arms of a friend, and placed on a superb seat in the midst of the company, where he sat a short time, and then went into the house, the door of which was immediately shut, and guarded by Sepoys. I and others expostulated with the door-keepers, but in vain." Never was I so struck with our Lord's beautiful parable, as at this moment:—"*And the door was shut!*" Ward's View of the History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. iii.

then called to his servants, and bade them bind him hand and foot—to drag him out of the room—and thrust him out into midnight darkness. (Matt. xxii. 2.)¹

The Scripture, moreover, informs us that the marriage festivals of the Jews lasted a whole week; as they do to this day among the Christian inhabitants of Palestine.² *Laban said: It must not be so done in our country to give the younger before the first born. Fulfil her week, and we will give thee this also.* (Gen. xxix. 26, 27.) *And Samson said unto them, I will now put forth a riddle unto you: if you can certainly declare it me within the SEVEN DAYS of the feast, and find it out, then I will give you thirty sheets, and thirty change of garments.* (Judges xiv. 12.) This week was spent in feasting, and was devoted to universal joy. To the festivity of this occasion our Lord refers. *Can the children of the bride-chamber mourn, as long as the bridegroom is with them? but the days will come, when the bridegroom shall be taken from them, and then shall they fast.* (Mark ii. 19, 20.)

The eastern people were very reserved, not permitting the young women at marriages to be in the same apartments with the men; and, therefore, as the men and women could not amuse themselves with one another's conversation, the men did not spend their time merely in dull eating and drinking: for their custom was to propose questions and hard problems, by resolving of which they exercised the wit and sagacity of the company. This was done at Samson's marriage, where he proposed a riddle to divert his company. (Judg. xiv. 12.)

It was also usual, we find, to choose a master of the ceremonies to do the honours of the solemnity, and to superintend and conduct the festival with just propriety and decorum. Of this appointment we have express mention, in the account of the marriage at Cana in Galilee, which our Lord deigned to honour with his presence, and to dignify with a miracle. There were in the house six water vessels of stone, placed according to the Jewish rite of purification, which contained each about two or three firkins. Jesus said to the servants—Fill these vessels with water.—They filled them up all to the brim. Jesus then said, draw out some of the liquor, and carry it to the governor of the feast. (John ii. 8.) When the master of the ceremonies tasted the water, now converted into excellent wine, he was astonished, he could not imagine how they obtained it. The servants only, who had brought him the liquor, knew this. He instantly calls the bridegroom to him, and says: It is always customary at an entertainment to bring out the best wine

¹ Dr. Macknight has well illustrated this parable. It seems, says this learned and judicious commentator, that before the guests were admitted into the hall of entertainment, they were taken into some apartment of the palace, where the king viewed them to see that they were all dressed in a manner suitable to the occasion. Here he found one that had not on a wedding garment—and being provoked at the affront, he ordered him to be immediately thrust out of the palace. Macknight's Harmony of the Gospel, p. 481. second edition.

² Jowett's Christian Researches in Syria and Palestine, p. 95.

first, and when the taste of the company is blunted with drinking, it is usual to bring them wine of an inferior sort. You have, it seems, reversed this custom—for you have reserved your best wine to the last.

V. Marriage was dissolved among the Jews by divorce as well as by death.¹ Our Saviour tells us, that *Moses suffered this only because of the hardness of their heart, but from the beginning it was not so* (Matt. xix. 8.); meaning that they were accustomed to this abuse, and to prevent greater evils, such as murders, adulteries, &c. he permitted it; whence it should seem to have been in use before the law; and we see that Abraham dismissed Hagar, at the request of Sarah. It appears that Samson's father-in-law understood that his daughter had been divorced, since he gave her to another. (Judg. xv. 2.) The Levite's wife, who was dishonoured at Gibeah, had forsaken her husband, and never would have returned, if he had not gone in pursuit of her. (Judg. xix. 2, 3.) Solomon speaks of a libertine woman, who had forsaken her husband, the director of her youth, and (by doing so contrary to her nuptial vows) had forgotten the covenant of her God. (Prov. ii. 17.) Ezra and Nehemiah obliged a great number of the Jews to dismiss the foreign women, whom they had married contrary to the law (Ezra x. 11, 12. 19.): but our Saviour has limited the permission of divorce to the single case of adultery. (Matt. v. 31, 32.) Nor was this limitation unnecessary; for, at that time it was common for the Jews to dissolve this sacred union upon very slight and trivial pretences. The Pharisees, we read, came to our Lord, and said to him, *Is it lawful for a man to put away his wife for every cause*,—for any thing whatever that may be disagreeable in her? Upon our Lord's answer to this inquiry, that it was not lawful for a man to repudiate his wife, except for her violation of the conjugal honour, the disciples (who had been educated in Jewish prejudices and principles,) hearing this, said—*If the case of the man be so with his wife, if he be not allowed to divorce her except only for adultery, it is not good to marry!* (Matt. xix. 10.) This facility in procuring divorces, and this caprice and levity among the Jews, in dissolving the matrimonial connection, is confirmed by Josephus, and unhappily verified in his own example: for he tells us that he repudiated his wife, though she was the mother of three children, because he was not pleased with her manners.²

¹ Among the Bedouin Arabs, a brother finds himself more dishonoured by the seduction of his sister than a man by the infidelity of his wife. This will account for the sanguinary revenge taken by Simeon and Levi upon the Shechemites for the defilement of their sister Dinah. (Gen. xxxiv. 25—31.) See D'Arvieux's Travels in Arabia the Desert, pp. 243, 244.

² Josephus de Vita sua. Op. tom. ii. p. 39. ed. Havercamp. — The following are some of the principal causes, for which the Jews were accustomed to put away their wives, at the period referred to:—1. "It is commanded to divorce a wife, that is not of good behaviour, and is not modest, as becomes a daughter of Israel."—2. "If any man hate his wife, let him put her away."—3. "The School of Hillel saith, If the wife cook her husband's food badly, by over-salting it, or over-roasting it, she is to be put away."—

CHAPTER IV.

BIRTH, EDUCATION, ETC. OF CHILDREN.

I. *Child-birth.* — *Circumcision.* — *Naming of the Child.* — II. *Privileges of the First-born.* — III. *Nurture of Children.* — IV. *Power of the Father over his Children.* — *Disposition of his Property.* — V. *Adoption.*

I. **I**N the East (as indeed in Switzerland and some other parts of Europe, where the women are very robust,) child-birth is to this day an event of but little difficulty; and mothers were originally the only assistants of their daughters, as any further aid was deemed unnecessary. This was the case of the Hebrew women in Egypt. (Exod. i. 19.) It is evident from Gen. xxxv. 17. and xxxviii. 28. that midwives were employed in cases of difficult parturition: and it also appears that in Egypt, from time immemorial, the care of delivering women was committed to female midwives. (Exod. i. 15. et seq.) From Ezek. xvi. 4. it seems to have been the custom to wash the child as soon as it was born, to rub it with salt, and to wrap it in swaddling clothes. The birth-day of a son was celebrated as a festival, which was solemnised every succeeding year with renewed demonstrations of festivity and joy, especially those of sovereign princes. (Gen. xl. 20. Job i. 4. Matt. xiv. 6.) The birth of a son or of a daughter rendered the mother ceremonially unclean for a certain period; at the expiration of which she went into the tabernacle or temple, and offered the accustomed sacrifice of purification, viz. a lamb of a year old, or, if her circumstances would not afford it, two turtle doves and two young pigeons. (Lev. xii. 1—8. Luke ii. 22.)

On the eighth day after its birth the son was circumcised, by which rite it was consecrated to the service of the true God (Gen. xvii. 10. compared with Rom. iv. 11.): on the nature of circumcision, see pp. 257—259. supra. At the same time, the male child received a name (as we have already remarked in p. 259.): in many instances he received a name from the circumstances of his birth, or from some peculiarities in the history of the family to which he belonged (Gen. xvi. 11. xxv. 25, 26. Exod. ii. 10. xviii. 3, 4.); and sometimes the name had a prophetic meaning. (Isa. vii. 14. viii. 3. Hos. i. 4. 6. 9. Matt. i. 21. Luke i. 13. 60. 63.)

II. The *First-born*, who was the object of special affection to his parents, was denominated by way of eminence, פטר פתח *the opening of the womb*. In case a man married with a widow who by a

4. Yea, "If, by any stroke from the hand of God, she become dumb or sottish," &c. — 5. R. Akibah said, "If any man sees a woman handsomer than his own wife, he may put her away; because it is said, 'If she find not favour in his eyes.'" — (Light-foot's *Horæ Hebraicæ*, on Matt. v. 31. — Works, vol. v. p. 118. 8vo. edit.) This last was the cause assigned by Josephus for repudiating his wife in the passage above cited.

previous marriage had become the mother of children, the first-born as respected the second husband was the child that was eldest by the second marriage. Before the time of Moses, the father might, if he chose, transfer the right of primogeniture to a younger child, but the practice occasioned much contention (Gen. xxv. 31, 32.), and a law was enacted overruling it. (Deut. xxi. 15—17.)

The first-born inherited peculiar rights and privileges.—1. He received a double portion of the estate. Jacob in the case of Reuben, his first-born, bestowed his additional portion upon Joseph, by adopting his two sons. (Gen. xlviii. 5—8.) This was done as a reprimand, and a punishment of his incestuous conduct (Gen. xxxv. 22.); but Reuben, notwithstanding, was enrolled as the first-born in the genealogical registers. (1 Chron. v. 1.)—2. *The first-born* was the priest of the whole family. The honour of exercising the priesthood was transferred, by the command of God, communicated through Moses, from the tribe of Reuben, to whom it belonged by right of primogeniture, to that of Levi. (Numb. iii. 12—18. viii. 18.) In consequence of this fact, that God had taken the Levites from among the children of Israel, instead of all the first-born, to serve him as priest, the first-born of the other tribes were to be redeemed, at a valuation made by the priest not exceeding five shekels, from serving God in that capacity. (Numb. xviii. 15, 16. compared with Luke ii. 22. et seq.)—3. *The first-born* enjoyed an authority over those, who were younger, similar to that possessed by a father (Gen. xxv. 23. et seq. 2 Chron. xxi. 3. Gen. xxvii. 29.), which was transferred in the case of Reuben by Jacob their father to Judah. (Gen. xlix. 8—10.) The tribe of Judah, accordingly, even before it gave kings to the Hebrews, was every where distinguished from the other tribes. In consequence of the authority which was thus attached to the first-born, he was also made the successor in the kingdom. There was an exception to this rule in the case of Solomon, who, though a younger brother, was made his successor by David at the special appointment of God. It is very easy to see in view of these facts, how the word, first-born, came to express sometimes a great, and sometimes the highest dignity. (Isa. xiv. 30. Psal. lxxxix. 27. Rom. viii. 29. Coloss. i. 15—18. Heb. xii. 23. Rev. i. 5. 11. Job xiii. 13.)

III. In the earliest ages, mothers suckled their offspring themselves, and, it should seem from various passages of Scripture, until they were nearly or quite three years old; on the day the child was weaned, it was usual to make a feast. (2 Mac. vii. 27. 1 Sam. i. 22—24. Gen. xxi. 8.) The same custom of feasting obtains in Persia to this day.¹ In case the mother died before the child was old enough to be weaned, or was unable to rear it herself, nurses were employed: and also in later ages when matrons became too delicate or too infirm to perform the maternal duties. These nurses were reckoned among the principal members of the family; and in consequence of the

respectable station which they sustained, are frequently mentioned in sacred history. See Gen. xxxv. 8. 2 Kings xi. 2. 2 Chron. xxii. 11.

The sons remained till the fifth year in the care of the women; then they came into the father's care, and were taught not only the arts and duties of life, but were instructed in the Mosaic law, and in all parts of their country's religion. (Deut. vi. 20—25. xi. 19.) Those who wished to have them further instructed, provided they did not deem it preferable to employ private teachers, sent them away to some priest or Levite, who sometimes had a number of other children to instruct. It appears from 1 Sam. i. 24—28., that there was a school near the holy tabernacle, dedicated to the instruction of youth.

The daughters rarely departed from the apartments appropriated to the females, except when they went out with an urn to draw water, which was the practice with those, who belonged to those humbler stations in life, where the antient simplicity of manners had not lost its prevalence. (Exod. ii. 16. Gen. xxiv. 16. xxix. 10. 1 Sam. ix. 11, 12. John iv. 7.) They spent their time in learning those domestic and other arts, which are befitting a woman's situation and character, till they arrived at that period in life, when they were to be sold, or by a better fortune given away, in marriage. (Prov. xxxi. 13. 2 Sam. xiii. 7.) The daughters of those, who by their wealth had been elevated to high stations in life, so far from going out to draw water in urns, might be said to spend the whole of their time within the walls of their palaces. In imitation of their mothers, they were occupied with dressing, with singing, and with dancing; and, if we may judge from the representations of modern travellers, their apartments were sometimes the scenes of vice. (Ezek. xxiii. 18.) They went abroad but very rarely, as already intimated, and the more rarely, the higher they were in point of rank, but they received with cordiality female visitants. The virtues of a good woman, of one that is determined, whatever her station, to discharge each incumbent duty and to avoid the frivolities and vices at which we have briefly hinted, are mentioned in terms of approbation and praise in Prov. xxxi. 10—31.

IV. The authority to which a father was entitled, extended not only to his wife, to his own children, and to his servants of both sexes, but to his children's children also. It was the custom antiently for sons newly married to remain at their father's house, unless it had been their fortune to marry a daughter, who, having no brothers, was heiress to an estate; or unless by some trade or by commerce, they had acquired sufficient property to enable them to support their own family. It might of course be expected, while they lived in their father's house and were in a manner the pensioners on his bounty, that he would exercise his authority over the children of his sons as well as over the sons themselves.

If it be asked, "What the power of the father was in such a case?" the answer is, that it had no narrow limits, and, whenever he found it necessary to resort to measures of severity, he was at liberty

to inflict the extremity of punishment. (Gen xxi. 14. xxxviii. 24.) This power was so restricted by Moses, that the father, if he judged the son worthy of death, was bound to bring the cause before a judge. But he enacted at the same time, that the judge should pronounce sentence of death upon the son, if on inquiry it could be proved, that he had beaten or cursed his father or mother, or that he was a spendthrift, or saucy, or contumacious, and could not be reformed. (Exod. xxi. 15. 17. Lev. xx. 9. Deut. xxi. 18.—21.) The authority of the parents, and the service and love due to them, are recognised in the most prominent and fundamental of the *moral laws* of the Jewish polity, viz. the *Ten Commandments*. (Exod. xx. 12.)

The son, who had acquired property, was commanded to exhibit his gratitude to his parents not only by words and in feeling, but by gifts. (Matt. xv. 5, 6. Mark. vii. 11—13.) The power of the father over his offspring in the ancient times was not only very great for the time being, and while he sojourned with them in the land of the living; but he was allowed also to cast his eye into the future, and his prophetic curse or blessing, possessed no little efficacy. (Gen. xlix. 2—28.)

It appears from 1 Kings xx. 1. (marginal rendering) that, in the disposition of his effects, the father expressed his last wishes or will in the presence of witnesses, and probably in the presence of the future heirs. Testaments were not written until long after that period. The following regulations obtained in the disposition of property.

1. As it respected *sons*: — The property or estate of the father, after his decease, fell into the possession of his sons, who divided it among themselves equally; with this exception, that the eldest son received two portions. It appears, however, from Luke xv. 12, that sons might demand and receive their portion of the inheritance during their father's lifetime; and that the parent though aware of the dissipated inclinations of the child, could not *legally* refuse the application.

2. As it respected the *sons of concubines*: — The portion, which was given to them, depended altogether upon the feelings of the father. Abraham gave presents, to what amount is not known, both to Ishmael and to the sons whom he had by Keturah, and sent them away before his death. It does not appear that they had any other portion in the estate: but Jacob made the sons, whom he had by his concubines, heirs as well as the others. (Gen. xxi. 8—21. xxv. 1—6. xlix. 1—27.) Moses laid no restrictions upon the choice of fathers in this respect; and we should infer that the sons of concubines for the most part received an equal share with the other sons, from the fact, that Jephtha, the son of a concubine, complained, that he was excluded without any portion from his father's house. (Judg. xi. 1—7.)

3. As it respected *daughters*: — The daughters not only had no portion in the estate, but, if they were unmarried, were considered as making no part of it, and were sold by their brothers into matri-

mony. In case there were no brothers, or they all had died, they took the estate (Numb. xxvii. 1—8.): if any one died intestate, and without any offspring, the property was disposed of according to the enactments in Numb. xxvii. 8—11.

4. As it respected *servants*:—The servants or the slaves in a family could not claim any share in the estate as a right, but the person who made a will, might, if he chose, make them his heirs. (Comp. Gen. xv. 3.) Indeed in some instances, those who had heirs, recognized as such by the law, did not deem it unbecoming to bestow the whole or a portion of their estates on faithful and deserving servants. (Prov. xvii. 2.)

5. As it respected *widows*.—The widow of the deceased, like his daughters, had no legal right to a share in the estate. The sons, however, or other relations, were bound to afford her an adequate maintenance, unless it had been otherwise arranged in the will. She sometimes returned back again to her father's house, particularly if the support, which the heirs gave her, was not such as had been promised, or was not sufficient. (Gen. xxxviii. 11. compare also the story of Ruth.) The prophets very frequently, and undoubtedly not without cause, exclaim against the neglect and injustice shewn to widows. (Isa. i. 17. x. 2. Jer. vii. 6. xxii. 3. Ezek. xxii. 7. comp. Exod. xxii. 22—24. Deut. x. 18. xxiv. 17.)

V. Where there were no sons to inherit property, it appears from various passages of the New Testament, that *Adoption*,—or the taking of a stranger into a family, in order to make him a part of it, acknowledging him as a son and heir to the estate—was very generally practised in the East, in the time of our Saviour. Adoption, however, does not appear to have been used by the elder Hebrews: Moses is silent concerning it in his laws; and Jacob's adoption of his two grandsons, Ephraim and Manasseh (Gen. xlviii. 1.), is rather a kind of substitution, by which he intended, that the two sons of Joseph should have each his lot in Israel, as if they had been his own sons. *Thy two sons, Ephraim and Manasseh, are mine; as Reuben and Simeon they shall be mine.* But as he gave no inheritance to their father Joseph, the effect of this adoption extended only to their increase of fortune and inheritance; that is, instead of one part, giving them (or Joseph, by means of them) two parts. Another kind of adoption among the Israelites, consisted in the obligation of a surviving brother to marry the widow of his brother, who had died without children (Deut. xxv. 5. Ruth iv. 5. Matt. xxii. 24.); so that the children of this marriage were considered as belonging to the deceased brother, and went by his name; a practice more antient than the law, as appears in the history of Tamar; but this manner of adopting was not practised among the Greeks and Romans: neither was that kind of adoption intended by Sarah, Leah, and Rachel; when they gave their hand-maidens to their husbands. (Gen. xvi. 2. xxx. 3.)

Pharaoh's daughter adopted the child Moses (Exod. ii. 10.), and Mordecai adopted Esther. (Esther ii. 7. 15.) We are not ac-

quainted with the ceremonies which were observed on these occasions, nor how far the privileges of adoption extended; but it is presumed, that they were nearly similar to those of the Roman laws, viz. that adopted children shared in the parent's estate with the natural children; that they assumed the name of the person who adopted them, and became subject to his paternal power.

By the propitiation of our Saviour, and the communication of the merits of his death, *penitent* sinners become the adopted children of God. Thus St. Paul writes (Rom. viii. 15.), *Ye have received the spirit of adoption, whereby we cry Abba, father, We wait for the adoption of the children of God.* And (Gal. iv. 4, 5.) *God sent forth his son to redeem them that were under the law, that we might receive the adoption of sons.*

Among the Mohammedans the ceremony of adoption is performed, by causing the adopted to pass through the shirt of the person who adopts him. For this reason, to adopt among the Turks is expressed by saying—to draw any one through one's shirt; and an adopted son is called by them, *Akietogli*, the son of another life—because he was not begotten in this.¹ Something like this is observable among the Hebrews: Elijah adopted the prophet Elisha, by throwing his mantle over him (1 Kings xix. 19.); and when Elijah was carried off in a fiery chariot, his mantle, which he let fall, was taken up by Elisha his disciple, his spiritual son, and adopted successor in the office of prophet. (2 Kings ii. 15.)

This circumstance seems to be illustrated by the conduct of Moses, who dressed Eleazar in Aaron's sacred vestments, when that high priest was about to be gathered to his fathers; indicating thereby, that Eleazar succeeded in the functions of the priesthood, and was, in some sort, adopted to exercise that dignity. The Lord told Shebna, the captain of the temple, that he would deprive him of his honourable station, and substitute Eliakim the son of Hilkiah, in his room. (Isaiah xxii. 21.) *I will CLOTHE HIM WITH THY ROBE, and strengthen him with thy girdle, and I will commit thy government into his hand.* St. Paul, in several places, says, that *real* Christians *put on the Lord Jesus*; and that they *put on the new man*, in order to denote their adoption as sons of God. (Rom. xiii. 14. Gal. iii. 26, 27.)²

¹ D'Herbelot Bibl. Orient. p. 47.

² Michaelis's Commentaries, vol. i. pp. 455—478. vol. ii. pp. 29—122. Lewis's Origines Hebrææ, vol. ii. pp. 240—310. Calmet's Dictionary, articles *Marriage*, *Divorce*, *Adoption*. Harwood's Introduction, vol. ii. pp. 119—124. Jahn, Archæologia, Biblica, pp. 221—232.

CHAPTER V.

ON THE CONDITION OF SLAVES AND OF SERVANTS, AND THE CUSTOMS RELATING TO THEM, MENTIONED OR ALLUDED TO IN THE NEW TESTAMENT.

I. *Slaves, how acquired.*—II. *Their condition among the Hebrews.*—III. *And among other Nations.*—IV. *Of Hired Servants.*—*Customs relating to them and to Slaves alluded to in the New Testament.*

I. **SLAVERY** is of very remote antiquity. It existed before the flood (Gen. ix. 25.); and when Moses gave his laws to the Jews, finding it already established, though he could not abolish it, yet he enacted various salutary laws and regulations. The Israelites indeed might have Hebrew servants or slaves, as well as alien-born persons, but these were to be circumcised, and were required to worship the only true God (Gen. xvii. 12, 13.), with the exception of the Canaanites.

Slaves were acquired by various ways, viz. 1. By *Captivity*, which is supposed to have been the first origin of slavery (Gen. xiv. 14. Deut. xx. 14. xxi. 10, 11.); 2. By *Debt*, when persons being poor, were sold for payment of their debts (2 Kings iv. 1. Matt. xviii. 25.); 3. By committing a *Theft*, without the power of making restitution (Exod. xxii. 2, 3. Neh. v. 4, 5.); and 4. By *Birth*, when persons were born of married slaves. These are termed *born in the house* (Gen. xiv. 14. xv. 3. xvii. 23. xxi. 10.), *home-born* (Jer. ii. 14.), and the *sons* or children of *hand-maids*. (Psal. lxxxvi. 16. cxvi. 16.)

II. Slaves received both food and clothing, for the most part of the meanest quality, but whatever property they acquired belonged to their lords: hence they are said to be worth double the value of a hired servant. (Deut. xv. 18.) They formed marriages at the will of their master, but their children were slaves, who, though they could not call him a father (Gal. iv. 6. Rom. viii. 15.), yet were attached and faithful to him as to a father, on which account the patriarchs trusted them with arms. (Gen. xiv. 14. xxxii. 6. xxxiii. 1.) If a married Hebrew sold himself, he was to serve for six years, and in the seventh he was to go out free, together with his wife and children: but, if his master had given one of his slaves to him as a wife, she was to remain, with her children, as the property of his master. (Exod. xxi. 2—4.) The duty of slaves was to execute their lord's commands, and they were for the most part employed in tending cattle or in rural affairs: and though the lot of some of them was sufficiently hard, yet under a mild and humane master, it was tolerable. (Job xxxi. 13.) When the eastern people have no male issue, they frequently marry their daughters to their slaves; and the same practice appears to have obtained among the

Hebrews, as we read in 1 Chron. ii. 34, 35. *Now Sheshan had no sons but daughters; and Sheshan had a servant (slave), an Egyptian, whose name was Jarha; and Sheshan gave his daughter to Jarha his servant to wife.* In Barbary, the rich people when childless have been known to purchase young slaves, to educate them in their own faith, and sometimes to adopt them for their own children. The greatest men of the Ottoman empire are well known to have been originally slaves brought up in the seraglio: and the Mameluke sovereigns of Egypt were originally slaves. Thus the advancement of the Hebrew captive Joseph to be viceroy of Egypt, and of Daniel, another Hebrew slave, to be chief minister of state in Babylon, corresponds with the modern usages of the East.

In order to mitigate the conditions of slaves, various statutes were enacted by Moses. Thus, 1. They were to be treated with humanity: the law, in Levit. xxv. 39—53., it is true, speaks expressly of slaves who were of Hebrew descent; but, as alien-born slaves were engrafted into the Hebrew church by circumcision, there is no doubt but that it applied to all slaves.—2. If a man struck his servant or maid with a rod or staff, and he or she died under his hand, he was to be punished by the magistrate: if, however, the slave survived for a day or two, the master was to go unpunished, as no intention of murder could be presumed, and the loss of the slave was deemed a sufficient punishment. (Exod. xxi. 20, 21.)—3. A slave, who lost an eye or a tooth by a blow from his or her master, acquired his or her liberty in consequence. (Exod. xxi. 26, 27.)—4. All slaves were to rest from their labours on the Sabbath, and on the great festivals. (Exod. xx. 10. Deut. v. 14.)—5. They were to be invited to certain feasts. (Deut. xii. 17, 18. xvi. 11.)—6. A master who had betrothed a female slave to himself, if she did not please him, was to permit her to be redeemed, and was prohibited from selling her to a strange nation, *seeing he had dealt deceitfully with her.* If he had betrothed her to his son, he was to deal with her after the manner of daughters. If he took another wife, her food, raiment, and duty of marriage, he was not to diminish. *And if he did not these three unto her, then she was to go out free without money.* (Exod. xxi. 7—11.)—7. Hebrew slaves were to continue in slavery only till the year of jubilee, when they might return to liberty, and their masters could not detain them against their wills. If they were desirous of continuing with their masters, they were to be brought to the judges, before whom they were to make a declaration that for this time they disclaimed the privilege of this law; and had their ears bored through with an awl against the door-posts of their master's house¹, after which they had no longer any power of

¹ Boring of the ear was an ancient custom in the East: it is thus referred to, by Juvenal:

Libertinus prior est: "Prior," inquit, "Ego adsum,
pæars, dubitâve locum defendere? quanvis

¹ *Euphratem, molles quod in AURE FENESTRÆ*

et, licet ipse negem.

Sat. i. 102—105.

recovering their liberty until the next year of jubilee, after forty-nine years. (Exod. xxi. 5, 6.) This very significant ceremony implied that they were closely attached to that house and family; and that they were bound to *hear*, and punctually to *obey*, all their master's orders.—8. If a Hebrew by birth was sold to a stranger or alien dwelling in the vicinity of the land of Israel, his relations were to redeem him, and such slave was to make good the purchase money if he were able, paying in proportion to the number of years that remained, until the year of jubilee. (Levit. xxv. 47—55.) Lastly, if a slave of another nation fled to the Hebrews, he was to be received hospitably, and on no account to be given up to his master. (Deut. xxiii. 15, 16.)

III. Although Moses inculcated the duty of humanity towards slaves, and enforced his statutes by various strong sanctions, yet it appears from Jer. xxxiv. 8—22. that their condition was sometimes very wretched. It cannot, however, be denied that their situation was much more tolerable among the Hebrews than among other nations, especially the Greeks and Romans.¹ Nor is this a matter of astonishment: for the Israelites were bound to exercise the duties of humanity towards these unhappy persons by weighty sanctions and motives, which no other nation had, whose slaves had no rest, no legal protection, and who were subject to the cruel caprice of their masters, whose absolute property they were, and at whose mercy their lives every moment lay. For the slightest and most trivial offences they were cruelly scourged and condemned to hard labour: and the petty tyrant of his family, when exasperated by any real or apprehended injury, could nail them to a cross, and make them die in a lingering and most miserable manner. These slaves, generally, were wretched captives, who had been taken prisoners in unfortunate battles, or had fallen into their enemies' hands in the siege of cities. These miserable captives, antient history informs us, were either butchered in cold blood, or sold by auction for slaves to the highest bidder. The unhappy prisoners thus

The freedman bustling through, replies, "First come is still
First served; and I may claim my right, and will,
Though born a slave — ('twere bootless to deny
What these BORED EARS betray to every eye.)"

GIFFORD.

Calmet, to whom we are indebted for this fact, quotes a saying from Petronius Arbiter, as attesting the same thing; and another of Cicero, in which he rallies a Lybian who pretended he did not hear him. — 'It is not,' said the philosopher, '*because your ears are not sufficiently BORED.*'—*Commentaire Littéral, sur l'Exode xxi. G. tom. i. p. 501.*

¹ Among the Romans more particularly, slaves were held — *pro nullis* — *pro mortuis* — *pro quadrupedibus* — for no men — for dead men — for beasts; nay, were in a much worse state than any cattle whatever. They had no head in the state, no name, no tribe, or register. They were not capable of being injured, nor could they take by purchase or descent; they had no heirs, and could make no will. Exclusive of what was called their *peculium*, whatever they acquired was their master's; they could neither plead nor be pleaded, but were entirely excluded from all civil concerns; were not entitled to the rights of matrimony, and therefore had no relief in case of adultery; nor were they proper objects of cognation nor affinity. They might be sold, transferred, or pawned, like other goods or personal estate; for goods they were, and as such they were esteemed. Taylor's Elements of the Roman Civil Law, p. 429. 4to. Adams' Summary of Roman Antiquities, pp. 38, 39.

bought and enslaved, were sometimes thrust into deep mines, to be drudges through life in darkness and despair: sometimes were pent up in private workhouses, and condemned to the most laborious and ignoble occupations: frequently the toils of agriculture were imposed upon them, and the severest tasks unmercifully exacted from them: most commonly they were employed in the menial offices and drudgery of domestic life, and treated with the greatest inhumanity. As the last insult upon their wretchedness, they were branded in the forehead, and a note of eternal disgrace and infamy publicly and indelibly impressed upon them! One cannot think of this most contumelious and reproachful treatment of a fellow-creature without feeling the acutest pain and indignation. To the above-mentioned customs in the treatment of slaves, which obtained among the ancients, there are several allusions in the New Testament. Thus St. Paul, in reference to the custom of purchasing slaves, on whose heads a price was then fixed, just as upon any other commodity, and who, when bought, were the entire and unalienable property of the purchaser, by a very beautiful and expressive similitude represents Christians as the servants of Christ; informs them that an immense price had been paid for them: that they were not at their own disposal; but in every respect, both as to body and mind, were the sole and absolute property of God. *Ye are not your own: for ye are bought with a price: therefore glorify God in your body and in your spirit, which are God's.* (1 Cor. vi. 20.) So also again: *Ye are bought with a price: be not ye the servants of men.* (1 Cor. vii. 23.) St. Paul usually styles himself the servant of Christ; and in a passage in his Epistle to the Galatians, alluding to the signatures with which slaves in those days were branded, he tells them that he carried about with him plain and indelible characters impressed in his body, which evinced him to be the servant of his master Jesus. *From henceforth let no man trouble me, for I bear in my body the marks of the Lord Jesus.* (Gal. vi. 17.) It was a doctrine of the pharisaic Jews, that proselytes were released from all antecedent, civil, and even natural relations: and it is not improbable that some of the Jewish converts might carry the same prin-

¹ The following passage from Mr. Jowett's *Christian Researches in the Mediterranean*, will give an idea of the rigour with which slaves are treated to this day in the East. The conductor of a nitre factory for the Pasha of Egypt having received commands to prepare a large quantity of nitre in great haste,—"for this purpose he was building small reservoirs and ducts, with old picked bricks, gathered from ruins; and which are better than the modern baked bricks. A great number of young persons of both sexes were engaged in the work, carrying burdens. To give vivacity to their proceedings, they are required to sing; and to keep them diligent, they were task-masters standing at intervals of about ten feet, with whips in their hands which they used very freely. We seemed to behold the manners of the ancient Egyptians: Exodus v." *Jowett's Researches*, p. 130. May not the command to sing also explain Psal. cxxxvii. 3, 4? "The Mallems, (or heads of districts of Coptic Christians in Egypt,) the same traveller elsewhere remarks, "transact business between the nobles and the peasants. He punishes them, if the peasants prove that they oppress; and yet he requires from them that the work of those who are under them shall be fulfilled." They strikingly illustrate the case of the officers, placed by the Pharaoh task-masters over the children of Israel; and, like theirs, the Mallems often find their office evil. See Exo. i. v. 6—29." *Ibid.*, p. 168.

ciple into the Christian community, and teach that, by the profession of Christianity, slaves were emancipated from their Christian masters. In opposition to this false notion, the same great apostle requires that all who are under the yoke of servitude be taught to yield due obedience to their masters, and animadverts with great severity upon those false teachers, who, from mercenary views, taught a different doctrine. (1 Tim. vi. 1—10.) Against this principle of the Judaising zealots, St. Paul always enters his strong protest, and teaches that the profession of Christianity makes no difference in the civil relations of men. See 1 Cor. vii. 17—24.

IV. Though slavery was tolerated and its horrors were mitigated by the wise and humane enactments of Moses, yet in the progress of time as hired servants would be necessary, various regulations were in like manner made by him, to ensure them from being oppressed. Like slaves, hired labourers were to partake of the rest of the sabbath, and also to share in the produce of the sabbatical year: their hire was to be paid every day before sun-set (Levit. xix. 13. Deut. xxiv. 14, 15.): but what that hire was to be, the Hebrew legislator has not determined, because the price of labour must have varied according to circumstances. From the parable of the proprietor of a vineyard and his labourers, which is related in Matt. xx. 1—15., we learn these three particulars concerning the servants in Judaea, or at least in Jerusalem. — That early in the morning they stood in the market-place to be hired — that the usual wages of a day-labourer were at that time a denarius, or about seven-pence halfpenny of our money — and that the customary hours of working were till six in the evening. Early in the morning the master of a family rose to hire day-labourers to work in his vineyard.¹ Having found a number he agreed to pay them a DENARIUS for the WAGES of the DAY, and sent them into his vineyard. About nine o'clock he went again into the MARKET-PLACE, and found several others unemployed, whom he also ordered into his vineyard, and promised to pay them what was reasonable. At twelve, and three in the afternoon, he went and made the same proposals, which were in the same manner accepted. He went likewise about five o'clock, and found a number of men sauntering about the market in idleness, and he said to them, why do you consume the whole day in this indolent manner? There is no one hath thought fit to give us any employment, they replied. Then go you into the vineyard among

¹ The same custom obtains to this day in Persia. In the city of Hamadan there is a maidan or square in front of a large mosque. "Here," says Mr. Morier, "we observed every morning before the sun rose, that a numerous band of peasants were collected with spades in their hands, waiting, as they informed us, to be hired for the day to work in the surrounding fields. This custom, which I have never seen in any other part of Asia, forcibly struck me as a most happy illustration of our Saviour's parable of the labourers in the vineyard in the 20th chapter of Matthew, particularly, when passing by the same place late in the day, we still found others standing idle, and remembered his words, *Why stand ye here all the day idle?* as most applicable to their situation: for, in putting the very same question to them, they answered us, *I cause no man hath hired us.*" Morier's Second Journey through Persia, p. 265.

my other labourers, and you shall receive what is just. In the evening the proprietor of the vineyard ordered his steward to call the workmen together, beginning from the last to the first, to pay them their wages, without any partiality or distinction. When those, therefore, came, who had been employed about five in the afternoon, they received a denarius a piece. When those, who had been hired in the morning, saw them return with such great wages, they indulged the most extravagant joy, imagining that their pay would vastly exceed that of the others; but how great was their disappointment, when they received from the steward, each man a denarius! This supposed injurious treatment caused them to raise loud clamours against the master. And they complained to him of his usage of them, saying, the last labourers you hired only worked a SINGLE HOUR, and you have given them the same wages as you have given us who have been scorched with excessive heat, and sustained the long and rigorous toil of the whole day. He turned to one who appeared the most petulant of them, and directed this reply, Friend, I do thee no injustice; was not our agreement for a denarius? Take what justice entitles thee to, without repining, and calmly acquiesce in the faithful performance of our original agreement—a principle of benevolence disposes me freely to bestow upon the last persons I hired what equity obliged me to give to you.

It has been observed that slaves were condemned to the mines, where their uncomfortable lives were consumed in the most rigorous and servile drudgery. It is natural to suppose that these wretches, born to better hopes, upon their first entrance into these dismal subterraneous abodes of darkness and despair, with such doleful prospects before them, would be transfixed with the acutest distress and anguish, shed bitter unavailing tears, gnash their teeth for extreme misery, and fill these gloomy caverns with piercing cries and loud lamentations. Our Lord seems to allude to this, and, **considered** in this view, the imagery is peculiarly beautiful and **expressive**, when he represents the wicked servant and unfaithful **steward bound hand and foot and cast into utter darkness**, where there would be weeping, wailing, and gnashing of teeth! (Matt. viii. 12. xxii. 13.) The reader will be pleased with the ingenious remarks of the learned and judicious Dr. Macknight on this passage. “In antient times the stewards of great families were slaves as well as the servants of a lower class, being raised to that trust on account of their fidelity, wisdom, sobriety, and other good qualities. If any steward, therefore, in the absence of his lord, behaved as is represented in the parable, it was a plain proof, that the virtues on account of which he was raised were counterfeit, and by consequence that he was an hypocrite. Slaves of this character, among other chastisements, were sometimes condemned to work in the mines. And as this was one of the most grievous punishments, when they first entered, nothing was heard among them but weeping and gnashing of teeth, on account of the intolerable fatigue to which

they were subjected in these hideous caverns without hope of release. There shall be weeping and gnashing of teeth."¹

Crucifixion was a servile punishment, and usually inflicted on the most vile, worthless, and abandoned of slaves. In reference to this it is that St. Paul represents our Lord taking upon him the form of a servant, and becoming subject to death, even the death of the cross (Phil. ii. 8.); crucifixion was not only the most painful and excruciating, but the most reproachful and ignominious death that could be suffered. Hence it is that the apostle so highly extols the unexampled love for man and magnanimity of Jesus, who for the joy set before him endured the cross, despising the shame (Heb. xii. 2.) and infamy even of such a death. It was this exit which Jesus made, that insuperably disgusted so many among the heathens; who could never prevail with themselves to believe that religion to be divine, whose founder had suffered such an opprobrious and infamous death from his countrymen. And for men to preach in the world a system of truths as a revelation from the deity, which were first delivered to mankind by an illiterate and obscure Jew, pretending to a divine mission and character, and who was for such a pretension crucified, appeared to the heathens the height of infatuation and religious delusion. *The preaching of the cross was to them foolishness* (1 Cor. i. 23.): and the religion of a crucified leader, who had suffered in the capital of his own country the indignities and death of a slave, carried with it, in their estimation, the last absurdity and folly, and induced them to look upon the Christians, and the wretched cause in which they were embarked, with pity and contempt. Hence St. Paul speaks of the offence of the cross², the great and invincible disgust conceived by the men of those times against a religion whose founder was crucified! Hence he speaks of not being ashamed of the Gospel from the circumstance which made such numbers ashamed of it, nay of glorying in the cross³ of Christ; though the consideration of the ignominious and servile death he suffered was the very obstacle that made the heathens stumble at the very threshold of Christianity, and filled them with insurmountable prejudices against it.⁴

¹ Dr. Macknight's Harmony, p. 522. 2d edit. 1763.

² Σκανδαλον του σταυρου. Galat. v. 11.

³ God forbid that I should glory save in the cross of our Lord Jesus Christ. Galat. vi. 14.

⁴ Jahn, *Archæologia Biblica*, pp. 241—246. Michaelis's Commentaries, vol. ii. pp. 155—184. Bruning's *Compendium Antiq̃uitatum Græcarum e profanis Sacrarum*, pp. 77—86. Harwood's Introduction, vol. ii. pp. 144—152. Stosch, *Compendium Archæologiæ Oeconomicae Novi Testamenti*, pp. 38—48.

CHAPTER VI.

DOMESTIC CUSTOMS AND USAGES OF THE JEWS.

I. *Forms of Salutation and Politeness.* — *Reverence to Superiors.* — II. *Mode of receiving Guests or Visitors.* — III. *Conversation and Bathing.* — IV. *Food and Entertainments.* — V. *Treatment of Strangers, the Poor, and Beggars.* — VI. *Mode of Travelling.* — VII. *Hospitality a sacred Duty among the Jews.* — *Account of the Tesseræ Hospitales of the Greeks and Romans.*

I. **VARIOUS** are the modes of address and politeness, which custom has established in different nations. The Orientals were very exact in the observances of outward decorum: and we may collect from several passages in the Old and New Testament, that their salutations and expressions of regard on *meeting* each other were extremely tedious and tiresome, containing many minute inquiries concerning the person's welfare, and the welfare of his family and friends; and when they *parted*, concluding with many reciprocal wishes of happiness and benediction on each other. The ordinary formulæ of salutation were — *The Lord be with thee!* — *The Lord bless thee!* — and *Blessed be thou of the Lord!* but the most common salutation was *Peace* (that is, may all manner of prosperity) *be with thee!* (Ruth ii. 4. Judg. xix. 20. 1 Sam. xxv. 6. Psal. cxxix. 8.) In the latter ages of the Jewish polity, much time appears to have been spent in the rigid observance of these ceremonious forms, for which the modern inhabitants of the East continue to be remarkable.¹ When our Lord, therefore, in his commission to the seventy, whom he despatched into the towns and villages of Judæa to publish the Gospel, strictly ordered them to *salute no man by the way*² (Luke x. 4.), he designed only by this prohibition that they should employ the utmost expedition; that they should suffer nothing to retard and impede them in *their* progress from one place to another; and should not lavish those precious moments, which ought to be devoted to the sacred and arduous duties of their office, in observing the irksome and unmeaning modes of ceremonious intercourse. Not that our Lord intended that his disciples should studiously violate all common

¹ Serious and taciturn as the natives of the East usually are, they grow talkative when they meet an acquaintance, and salute him. This custom has come from Asia with the Arabs, and spread over the north coast of Africa. A modern traveller relates the reciprocal salutations with which those ~~are~~ received who return with the caravans. "People go a great way to meet them; as soon as they are perceived, the questioning and salutation begins, and continues with the repetition of the same phrases: 'How do you do? God be praised that you are come in peace! God give you peace! How fares it with you?' The higher the rank of the person returning home, the longer does the salutation last." See Hornemay's Journal. Stollberg's History of Religion, vol. iii. p. 183. Burder's Oriental Literature, vol. i. p. 436.

² *by the way*: C'est à dire, ne perdez point le tems en long discours, monies avec les passans. L'Enfant, in loc.

civility and decency, and industriously offend against all the rules of courteousness and decorum, since he commanded them upon their entrance into any house to *salute it*¹ (Matt. x. 12.), and observe the customary form of civility in wishing it *peace*² (Luke x. 5.) or universal happiness. This injunction, to *salute no one on the road*, means only that they should urge their course with speed, and not suffer their attention to be diverted from the duties of their commission. There is a passage in the Old Testament parallel to this, and which beautifully illustrates it. Elisha, despatching his servant Gehazi to recover the son of the Shunamite, strictly enjoins him to make all the expedition possible, which is thus expressed: Gird up thy loins and take my staff in thine hand, and go thy way. *If thou meet any man, salute him not, and if any salute thee, answer him not again.* (2 Kings iv. 29.)

In all countries these modes of address and politeness, though the terms are expressive of the profoundest respect and homage, yet through constant use and frequency of repetition soon degenerate into mere verbal forms and words of course, in which the heart has no share. They are a frivolous unmeaning formulary, perpetually uttered without the mind's ever annexing any idea to them. To these empty insignificant forms, which men mechanically repeat at meeting or taking leave of each other, there is a beautiful allusion in the following expression of our Lord in that consolatory discourse which he delivered to his apostles when he saw them dejected and disconsolate on his plainly assuring them that he would soon leave them and go to the Father. *Peace I leave with you: My peace I give unto you:—Not as the world giveth³, give I unto you.* (John xiv. 27.) Since I must shortly be taken from you, I now bid you adieu, sincerely wishing you every happiness; not as the world giveth, give I unto you; not in the unmeaning ceremonial manner the world repeats this salutation: for my wishes of peace and happiness to you are sincere, and my blessing and benediction will derive upon you every substantial felicity. This sheds light and lustre upon one of the finest and most beautiful pieces of imagery which the genius and judgment of a writer ever created. In that well-written and truly sublime Epistle to the Hebrews, the author informs us with what warm anticipating hopes of the Messiah's future kingdom those great and good men, who adorned the annals of former ages, were animated. These all, says he, died

¹ And when ye come into an house, *salute it*.

² And into whatsoever house you enter, say, *Peace be to this house!* Peace, in the Jewish idiom, denotes happiness.

³ The words of the philosopher are an excellent and striking paraphrase on this passage of Scripture. *Ὅρατε γὰρ ὅτι εἰρήνην μεγάλην δὲ Καίσαρ. κ. λ.* You see what a great and extensive peace the Emperor can give the world; since there are now no wars, no battles, no association of robbers or of pirates, but one may in safety, at any time of the year, travel or sail from east or west. But can the Emperor give us peace from a fever, from shipwreck, from fire, from an earthquake, or from thunder? Can he from love? He cannot! from sorrow? No! from envy? No! from none of these things! The principles only of philosophy promise and are able to secure us peace from all these evils. Arriani Dissert. Epist. lib. iii. p. 471. edit. Upton. 1741.

in faith, they closed their eyes upon the world, but they closed them in the transporting assurance that God would accomplish his promises. They had the firmest persuasion that the Messiah would bless the world. By faith they antedated these happy times, and placed themselves, in idea, in the midst of all their fancied blessedness. They hailed this most auspicious period: saluted it, as one salutes a friend whose person we recognise, at a distance. These all died in faith, died in the firm persuasion that God would accomplish these magnificent promises, though they themselves had not enjoyed them, but only had seen them afar off: God had only blessed them with a remote prospect of them. They were therefore persuaded of them, they had the strongest conviction of their reality—they embraced them—with transport saluted¹ them at a distance, confessing that they were but strangers and pilgrims upon earth, but were all travelling towards a city which had foundations, whose builder and maker is God!

Respect was shewn to persons on meeting, by the salutation of *Peace be with you!* and laying the right hand upon the bosom: but if the person addressed was of the highest rank, they bowed to the earth. Thus *Jacob bowed to the ground seven times until he came near to his brother Esau.* (Gen. xxxiii. 3.) Sometimes they kissed the hem of the person's garment, and even the dust on which he had to tread. (Zech. viii. 23. Luke viii. 44. Acts x. 26. Psal. lxxii. 9.) Near relations and intimate acquaintances kissed each other's hands, head, neck, beard (which on such occasions only could be touched without affront), or shoulders. (Gen. xxxiii. 4. xlv. 14. 2 Sam. xx. 9. Luke xv. 20. Acts xx. 37.) Whenever the common people approached their prince, or any person of superior rank, it was customary for them to prostrate themselves before them. In particular, this homage was universally paid to the monarchs of Persia by those who were admitted into their presence;—a homage, in which some of the Greek commanders, possessed of a truly liberal and manly spirit, peremptorily refused² to gratify them. In imitation of these proud sovereigns, Alexander the Great exacted a similar prostration. This mode of address obtained also among the Jews. When honoured with admittance to their sovereign, or introduced to illustrious personages, they fell down at their feet, and continued in this servile posture till they were raised. There occur many instances of this custom in the New Testament. The wise men who came from the East, when they saw the child Jesus with his mother Mary, *fell down and worshipped*

¹ Ἀσπασαμενοι. The word always used in salutations. See Romans xvi. passim.

² Vereor ne civitati mee sit opprobrio, si quum ex ea sim profectus, quæ cæteris gentibus imperare consueverit, potius barbarorum quam illius more fungar! C. Nepos. Canon. p. 153. The Athenians punished a person with death for submitting to this slavish prostration. Athenienses autem Timagoram inter officium salutationis Darii regem more gentis illius adulatun, capitali supplicio affecerunt; unius civis humilibus blanditiis totius urbis sue acceps Persie dominationi summum graviter ferentes. S. lib. vi. cap. 3. p. 561. Torrenii, Leidæ, 1726.

him. Great numbers of those who approached our Saviour *fell down at his feet*. We read of several of the common people who *prostrated* themselves before him and worshipped him. Cornelius, at his first interview with Peter, when he met him, *fell down* before him and worshipped him, and remained in this submissive attitude till Peter took him up; saying, *Stand up; I also am a man*. In the Old Testament we read that Esther *fell down* at the feet of Ahasuerus. These prostrations among the eastern people appear to us to the last degree unmanly and slavish¹; but it seems that the inhabitants of the oriental countries have always used more illiberal and humiliating forms of address and homage than ever obtained in Europe.

It was also customary in those times, whenever a popular harangue was about to be delivered, and the people stood convened, for the orator, before he entered on his discourse, *to stretch forth his hand towards* the multitude as a token of respect to his audience, and to engage their candid attention. Frequent instances of this polite address of an orator to the assembled multitude occur in the classics. In like manner we read that St. Paul, before he commenced his public apology to the multitude, bespoke their respect and candour by *beckoning with his hand* to them. Paul said, "I am a man who am a Jew of Tarsus, a city of Cilicia, a citizen of no mean city: and I beseech thee suffer me to speak unto the people. And when he had given him licence, Paul stood on the stairs and *beckoned with his hand* unto the people." Thus also in the account of the tumult which happened at Ephesus, when the whole city was filled with confusion, some clamouring one thing, some another, and the mob which Demetrius had raised were instigated to the last excesses of violence and fury, though, as is usual in mobs, the majority of them, as the sacred historian tells us, knew not what it was that had brought them together; in the midst of this confused scene we read that the Jews pushed forward and placed one Alexander on an eminence. He being exalted above the crowd, intended in a formal harangue to exculpate the Jews from any concern in the present disturbance. Accordingly he *beckoned to them with his hand*—making use of this respectful customary address to insure their favourable regard, before he delivered his designed apology. But this specious and popular artifice, it seems, did not avail the orator, for the moment the mob understood he was a Jew, they pierced the air with their confused cries, repeating, for two hours together, "Great is Diana of the Ephesians!"

From time immemorial it has also been the universal custom in the East to send presents one to another. No one waits upon an eastern prince, or any person of distinction, without a present. This is a token of respect which is never dispensed with. How mean and inconsiderable soever the gift, the intention of the giver is ac-

¹ Qui ubi in castra Romana et prætorium pervenerunt, more adulantium, accepto, credo, ritu ex eâ regione ex qua oriundi erant, procubuerunt. Conveniens oratio tam humili adulationi. *Lectis*, lib. xxx. cap. 16. tom. 3. p. 130. edit. Ruddiman.

cepted. Plutarch informs us that a peasant happening to fall in the way of Artaxerxes the Persian monarch, in one of his excursions, having nothing to present to his sovereign, according to the oriental custom, the countryman immediately ran to an adjacent stream, filled both his hands, and offered it to his prince. The monarch, says the philosopher, smiled and graciously received it, highly pleased with the good dispositions this action manifested.¹ All the books of modern travellers into the East, Sandys, Thevenot, Maundrell, Shaw, Pococke, Norden, Hasselquist, Light, Clarke, Morier, Ouseley, and others, abound with numberless examples of this universally prevalent custom of waiting upon great men with presents — unaccompanied with which, should a stranger presume to enter their houses, it would be deemed the last outrage and violation of politeness and respect. It was, therefore, agreeably to this oriental practice which obtains in all these countries to this day², that the wise men, when they entered the house to which the star had directed them, and saw the child and his mother, after they had prostrated themselves before him, and paid him the profoundest homage, as the evangelist informs us, opened their treasures, and testified their sense of the dignity of his person, by respectfully making him rich presents, consisting of gold, frankincense, and myrrh.

II. When any person visited another, he stood at the gate and knocked, or called aloud, until the person on whom he called admitted him. (2 Kings v. 9—12. Acts x. 17. xii. 13. 16.) If the visitor was a person of extraordinary dignity, it was customary to send persons of rank, who were followed by others of still greater rank, to meet him, and do him honour. Thus *Balak sent princes more and more honourable* to meet Balaam (Numb. xxii. 15.); and the same custom obtains to this day in Persia.³ Visitors were always received and dismissed with great respect. On their arrival water was brought to wash their feet and hands (Gen. xviii. 4. xiii. 2.), after which the guests were anointed with oil. David alludes to this in Psal. xxiii. 5. The same practice obtained in our Saviour's time. Thus we find Mary Magdalene approaching him at an entertainment, and, as a mark of the highest respect and honour she could confer, breaking an alabaster vase full of the richest perfume and pouring it on his head.⁴ Our Lord's vindication to Simon, of the behaviour of this woman, presents us with a lively idea of the civilities in those times ordinarily paid to guests on their arrival, but which marks of friendship and respect had (it seems) been neglected

¹ Plutarch's *Morals*, vol. i. p. 299. edit. Gr. Stephani.

² The common present now made to the great in these countries is a horse; an ass might formerly answer the same purpose, and to this Moses probably alludes in Numb. xvi. 15. as well as Samuel (1 Sam. xiv. 3.), particularly, as asses were then deemed no dishonourable beasts for the saddle. See Burder's *Oriental Researches*, vol. i. p. 243.

³ Morier's *Second Journey*, p. 134.

⁴ It is worthy of remark that Oil of Roses, which is the finest perfume imported from the East at the present time, is contained in pots or vases, with the stopper so firmly luted to the top, that it requires a great deal of force and breaking to separate them, before the perfume can be poured out. This may explain the action of Mary Magdalene?

by this Pharisee, at whose house Jesus Christ then was. *He turned to the woman, and said unto Simon, Seest thou this woman? I entered into thine house, and thou gavest me NO WATER FOR MY FEET; but she hath WASHED MY FEET with her tears, and wiped them with the hairs of her head. Thou gavest me no KISS: but this woman, since I came in, hath not ceased to KISS MY FEET. Mine HEAD with OIL thou didst not anoint; but this woman hath ANOINTED MY FEET with ointment.* (Luke vii. 44-46.) To this practice of anointing, Solomon alludes (Prov. xxvii. 9.): and among the Babylonians, it was usual to present *sweet odours*. (Dan. ii. 46.) It is still the custom in Egypt, among the Arabs and other nations, thus to treat their guests, and, when they are about to depart, to burn the richest perfumes.¹ Among the Asiatic sovereigns also, it is a common custom to give both garments and money to ambassadors, and persons of distinction whom they wish to honour: hence they keep in their wardrobes several hundred changes of raiment ready for presents of this kind. This usage obtained in Egypt, where Joseph gave changes of raiment to his brethren, and to his brother Benjamin three hundred pieces of silver, besides five changes of raiment. (Gen. xlv. 22.) That such were given by way of reward and honour, see Judg. xiv. 12. 19. Rev. vi. 11. and vii. 9. 14.

III. "*Conversation*, in which the antient orientals indulged like other men, in order to beguile the time, was held in the gate of the city. Accordingly, there was an open space near the gate of the city, as is the case at the present day in Mauritania, which was fitted up with seats for the accommodation of the people. (Gen. xix. 1. Psal. lxxix. 12.) Those, who were at leisure, occupied a position on these seats, and either amused themselves with witnessing those who came in and those who went out, and with any trifling occurrences that might offer themselves to their notice, or attended to the judicial trials, which were commonly investigated at public places of this kind, viz. the gate of the city. (Gen. xix. 1. xxxiv. 20. Psal. xxvi. 4, 5. lxxix. 12. cxxvii. 5. Ruth iv. 11. Isa. xiv. 31.)

Intercourse by conversation, though not very frequent, was not so rare among the antient orientals, as among their descendants of modern Asia, except perhaps in Palestine.² Nor is this to be won-

¹ See several instances of this custom in Harmer's Observations, vol. ii. pp. 378-392.

² "It is no uncommon thing," says the Rev. Mr. Jowett, "to see an individual, or a groupe of persons, even when very well dressed, sitting with their feet drawn under them, upon the bare earth, passing whole hours in idle conversation. Europeans would require a chair; but the natives here prefer the ground: in the heat of summer and autumn, it is pleasant to them to while away their time in this manner, under the shade of a tree. Richly adorned females, as well as men, may often be seen thus amusing themselves. As may naturally be expected, with whatever care they may at first siting down choose their place, yet the flowing dress by degrees gathers up the dust: as this occurs, they from time to time arise, adjust themselves, shake off the dust, and then sit down again." This usage beautifully illustrates Isa. li. 2. *Shake thyself from the dust—arise—sit down, O Jerusalem.* The sense of these expressions, to an oriental, is extremely natural. "The captive daughter of Zion, brought down to the dust of suffering and oppression, is commanded to arise and shake herself from that dust; and then, with grace and dignity, and composure and security, to sit down; to take as it were, again, her seat and her rank amid the company of the nations of the earth, which had before afflicted her, and trampled her to the earth." Jowett's Christian Researches in Syria, pp. 282, 283.

dered at, since the fathers drank wine, while the descendants are obliged to abstain from it; and we are well assured, that the effect of this exhilarating beverage was to communicate no little vivacity to the characters of the antient Asiatics, at least to that of the Hebrews. (See Isa. xxx. 29. Jer. vii. 34. xxx. 19. Amos vi. 4, 5.) The antient Asiatics, among whom we include the Hebrews, were delighted with singing, with dancing, and with instruments of music. Promenading, so fashionable and so agreeable in colder latitudes, was wearisome and unpleasant in the warm climates of the East, and this is probably one reason why the inhabitants of those climates preferred holding intercourse with one another, while sitting near the gate of the city, or beneath the shade of the fig tree and the vine. (1 Sam. xxii. 6. Micah. iv. 4.) It is for the same reason also that we so frequently hear in the Hebrew Scriptures of persons sitting down, as in the following passage, "Blessed is the man, that standeth not in the way of sinners, nor sitteth in the seat of the scornful." (See Psal. i. 1. cvii. 32. lxxxix. 7. cxi. 1. lxiv. 2. l. 20. xxvi. 5.)

"The bath was always very agreeable to the inhabitants of the East (Ruth iii. 3. 2 Sam. xi. 2. 2 Kings v. 10.); and it is not at all surprising, that it should have been so, since it is not only cooling and refreshing, but is absolutely necessary in order to secure a decent degree of cleanliness in a climate, where there is so much exposure to dust. The bath is frequently visited by eastern ladies, and may be reckoned among their principal recreations. Those Egyptians, who lived at the earliest period of which we have any account, were in the habit of bathing in the waters of the Nile. (Exod. ii. 5. vii. 13—25.) It was one of the civil laws of the Hebrews, that the bath should be used. The object of the law, without doubt, was to secure a proper degree of cleanliness among them. (Lev. xiv. 2. xv. 1—8. xvii. 15, 16. xxii. 6. Numb. xix. 7.) We may, therefore, consider it as probable, that public baths, soon after the enactment of this law, were erected in Palestine, of a construction similar to that of those, which are so frequently seen at the present day in the East.

The orientals, when engaged in conversation, are very candid and mild, and do not feel themselves at liberty directly to contradict the person, with whom they are conversing, although they may at the same time be conscious, that he is telling them falsehoods. The antient Hebrews in particular very rarely used any terms of reproach more severe than those of *שׂוֹנֵא* *adversary* or *opposer*, *רָעָה*, *racah*, *contemptible*, and sometimes *נָבֵל* *fool*, an expression, which means a wicked man or an atheist. (Job ii. 10. Psal. xiv. 1. Isa. xxxii. 6. Matt. v. 22. xvi. 23.) When any thing was said, which was not acceptable, the dissatisfied person replied, it is enough, *כֵּן לָכֵן*, *ikanoosho*. (Deut. iii. 26. Luke xxii. 38.)

The formula of assent or affirmation was as follows; *כֵּן דַּבַּרְתָּ*, *thou hast said*, or *thou hast rightly said*. We are informed by the traveller Aryda, that this is the prevailing mode of a person expressing his assent or affirmation to this day, in the

vicinity of mount Lebanon, especially where he does not wish to assert any thing in express terms. This explains the answer of the Saviour to the high priest Caiaphas in Matt. xxvi. 64., when he was asked, whether he was the Christ the Son of God, and replied *συ ειπας, thou hast said.*

To spit in company in a room, which was covered with a carpet, was an indication of great rusticity of manners; but in case there was no carpet, it was not accounted a fault in a person, provided he spit in the corner of the room. The expressions, therefore, in Deuteronomy xxv. 7—9., viz. *וְרָקַח בְּפָנָיו* she shall spit in his face, are to be understood literally, the more so on this account, because in other places, where spitting, buffeting, &c. are mentioned, they occur under circumstances, where there existed a great excitement of feeling, and because there are not wanting instances of even greater rudeness and violence, than that of spitting in one's face. (Matt. xxvi. 67. Mark xiv. 65. comp. 1 Kings xxii. 24. Isa. lvii. 4. Ezek. ii. 6. xxv. 6. 2 Sam. xvi. 6, 7.) The orientals, as is very well known, are fond of taking a nap at noon, to which they are strongly invited by the oppressive heat of their climate. (2 Sam. iv. 5. xi. 2. Matt. xiii. 25.) The phrase, *to cover one's feet*, is used in certain instances to express the custom of retiring to rest or sleeping at this time. (Judg. iii. 24. 1 Sam. xxiv. 4.)¹

IV. The Jews rose early, about the dawn of day, when they breakfasted. They dined about eleven in the forenoon, and supped at five in the afternoon. From this circumstance of their breakfasting so early, Dr. Lightfoot endeavours to account for the language of the evangelists John (xix. 14.) and Mark (xv. 25.) concerning our Lord's crucifixion. The former notices the time from the preparation of the passover: and the latter, the time of the day. The preparation began at the dawn or cock-crowing. From this custom too, the term *to rise early* denotes diligence, either in doing good or evil. Supper appears to have been the principal meal among the Jews, as it was among the Greeks and Romans.²

From the whole of the sacred history, it is evident that the food of the Jews was of the simplest nature, consisting principally of milk, honey, rice, vegetables, and sometimes of locusts, except at the appointed festivals, or when they offered their feast offerings; at these times they ate animal food, of which they appear to have been very fond (Numb. xi. 4.), when (as is done this day throughout the east), the guests dipped their hands in the dish. (Matt. xxvi. 23.)³ The pottage which Jacob had prepared, and which was so tempting to Esau as to make him sell his birthright, shews the simplicity of the ordinary diet of the patriarchs. Isaac in his old age longed for *savoury meat*, which was accordingly prepared for him (Gen.

¹ Mr. Upham's Translation of Jahn's *Archæologia Biblica*, pp. 194—196.

² Compare Mark vi. 21. Luke xiv. 16. and John xii. 2.; and see Abp. Potter's *Antiquities of Greece*, vol. ii. p. 353. and Dr. Adam's *Summary of Roman Antiquities*, p. 433.

³ See an example in Jowett's *Christian Researches in Syria*, p. 284.

xxvii. 4. 17.); but this was an unusual thing. The feast with which Abraham entertained the three angels, was a calf, new eakes baked on the hearth, together with butter (*ghee*) and milk.¹ (Gen. xviii. 6, 7.) We may form a correct idea of their ordinary articles of food by the articles which were presented to David on various occasions by Abigail (1 Sam. xxv. 18.), by Ziba (2 Sam. xvi. 1.), and by Barzillai. (2 Sam. xvii. 28, 29.)

The most useful and strengthening, as well as the most common article of food, was doubtless *bread*. Frequent mention is made of this simple diet in the Holy Scriptures², which do not often mention the flesh of animals: though this is *sometimes* included in the *eating of bread*, or making a meal, as in Matt. xv. 2. Mark iii. 20. vii. 2. Luke xiv. 1. and John vi. 23. Sometimes the ears were gathered and the grain eaten, before the corn was reaped; in the earliest times, after it had been threshed and dried, it was eaten without any further preparation. This was called *parched corn*. Subsequently, the grain was pounded in a mortar, to which practice Solomon alludes. (Prov. xxvii. 22.) In later times, however, it was in general ground into flour, fermented with leaven, and made into bread; though on certain occasions, as at the departure of the Israelites from Egypt, they baked *unleavened bread*. (Exod. xii. 34—39.) The lightest bread, which was made of the finest flour, and was *made quickly upon the hearth*, they called *cakes* (Gen. xviii. 6.): the larger and coarser sort were called *loaves*. (1 Sam. xxi. 3.) The cakes were antiently baked upon the hearth (Gen. xviii. 6.): afterwards, this was done upon the coals, being probably laid upon some grate. (1 Kings xix. 6.) But the Holy Bread was baked in an oven. (Levit. ii. 4.) The *fuel*, used for this and other culinary purposes, consisted of thorns, wood of all kinds, and in general, as their sure supply, the dung of cows, asses, or camels, dried and collected into heaps (Lam. iv. 5.): grass also was employed for the same purpose. (Matt. vi. 30.) The knowledge of this circumstance illustrates Eccles. vii. 6. Psal. lviii. 9. Amos iv. 11. Zech. iii. 2. Isa. vii. 4. and especially Ezek. iv. 12. In order to shew the extremity of distress, to which the Jews would be reduced in the captivity, the prophet was to prepare the most common provisions and to bake the bread with *human dung*. Nothing could paint more strongly a case of extreme necessity than this; and the Jews would so understand this sign.³

¹ Milk and honey were the chief dainties of the antients, as they still are among the Arabs, and especially the Bedouins. Hence the land of Canaan is described as a *land flowing with milk and honey*. Exod. iii. 8.

² Thus, in 1 Gen. xviii. 5. and 1 Sam. xxviii. 22, we read, *I will fetch a morsel of BREAD*. — Gen. xxi. 14. *Abraham took BREAD, and a bottle of water, and gave it unto Hagar*. — Gen. xxxvii. 25. *They . . . down to EAT BREAD*. — Gen. xliii. 31. *Joseph said, Set on BREAD*. — Exod. ii. 20. *Call him that he may EAT BREAD*. — Exod. xvi. 3. *We did EAT BREAD to the full*. — Deut. ix. 9. *I neither did EAT BREAD, nor drink water*. — 1 Sam. xviii. 20. *Seul had EATEN no BREAD all the day, &c.*

³ Beetham's Translation of the Bible, vol. i. p. 60.

The Hebrews were forbidden to eat many things which were, and are eaten by other nations; some animals being unclean according to the Mosaic Law (those, for instance, which were either actually impure and abominable, or were esteemed so); others being set apart for the altar, certain parts of which it was consequently not lawful to eat.

The regulations concerning clean and unclean animals are principally recorded in Levit. xi. and Deut. xiv.; and according to them, the following articles are reckoned unclean, and consequently are interdicted to the Hebrews; viz. 1. Quadrupeds, which do not ruminates, or which have cloven feet; — 2. Serpents and creeping insects; also certain insects which sometimes fly, and sometimes advance upon their feet; but locusts, in all their four stages of existence, are accounted clean; — 3. Certain species of birds, many of the names of which are obscure; — 4. Fishes without scales, and also those without fins; — 5. All food, all liquids, standing in a vessel, and all wet seed into which the dead body of any unclean beast had fallen; — 6. All food and liquids, which stood in the tent or chamber of a dying or dead man, remaining meanwhile in an uncovered vessel (Numb. xix. 15.); — 7. Every thing which was consecrated by any one to idols. (Exod. xxxiv. 15.) It was this prohibition, that in the primitive church occasioned certain dissensions, upon which Paul frequently remarks, especially in 1 Cor. viii. 10.; — 7. A kid boiled in the milk of its mother. (Exod. xxiii. 19. xxxiv. 26. Deut. xiv. 21.) This was prohibited either to enforce the duty of humanity to animals, or to guard the Hebrews against some idolatrous or superstitious practice of the heathen nations.

The consecrated animal substances interdicted to the Hebrews were, 1. Blood (Levit. xvii. 10. xix. 26. Deut. xii. 16. 23. 24. xv. 23.); — 2. Animals which had either died of disease, or had been torn by wild beasts, though strangers might eat them if they chose (Exod. xxii. 31. Deut. xiv. 26.); — 3. The fat covering the intestines, termed the *net* or *caul*; — 4. The fat upon the intestines, called the *mesentery*, &c.; — 5. The fat of the kidneys; — 6. The *fat tail* or rump of certain sheep. (Exod. xxix. 13. 22. Levit. iii. 4. 9, 10. ix. 19.)

Many ingenious conjectures have been assigned for these prohibitions; but the Scriptures, which are our safest guide in enquiries of this kind, expressly inform us, that the design of them was both moral and political. This is declared in Levit. xx. 24—26. *I am the Lord your God, who have separated you from other people; ye shall therefore put difference between clean beasts and unclean; and ye shall not make yourselves abominable by beast or by fowl, or by any living thing that creepeth on the ground, which I have separated from you as unclean; and ye shall be holy unto me, for I the Lord am holy, and have severed you from other people that ye should be mine.* As if the Almighty had said, “I have selected you from, and have exalted you far above, the heathen and idolatrous world.

Let it be your care to conduct yourselves worthy of this distinction. Let the quality of your food, as well as the rites of your worship, display your peculiar and holy character. Let even your manner of eating be so appropriate, so pure, so nicely adjusted by my law, as to convince yourselves and all the world, that you are indeed separated from idolaters, and devoted to me alone." Agreeably to this declaration Moses tells the Israelites (Deut. xiv. 2. 3. 31.), *The LORD hath chosen you to be a peculiar people unto himself, above all the nations that are upon the earth. Thou shalt not eat any abominable thing. Ye shall not eat any thing that dieth of itself; ye shall give it to a stranger or sell it to an alien, for ye are a holy people.* In other words, "Since God has invested you with singular honour and favour, you ought to reverence yourselves; you ought to disdain the vile food of heathen idolaters. Such food you may lawfully give or sell to foreigners, but a due self-respect forbids you to eat it." The immediate and primary intention of these and other similar regulations, was to break the Israelites of the ill habits to which they had been accustomed in Egypt, or which they had indulged while in that country; and to keep them for ever distinct from that corrupt people, both in principles and practices, and by parity of reason from all other idolatrous nations. Another reason for the distinction was, that, as the Jews were peculiarly devoted to God, they should be reminded of that relation by a particularity of diet, which should serve emblematically as a sign of their obligation to study moral purity. Further, it has been suggested, as a reason for the distinctions between clean and unclean food, not only that the quality of the food itself is an important consideration (*clean* animals affording a copious and wholesome nutriment, while *unclean* animals yield a gross nutriment, which is often the occasion of scrofulous and scorbutic disorders); but also, that to the eating of certain animals may be ascribed a specific influence on the moral temperament.¹

Their ordinary beverage was water, which was drawn from the public wells and fountains (John iv. 6, 7.), and which was to be refused to no one. (Matt. xxv. 35.) The water of the Nile, in Egypt, all modern travellers attest², is singularly delicious as well as extraordinarily wholesome, and is drunk in very large quantities; while that of the few wells, which are found in that country, is not potable, being both unpleasant and insalubrious. When the modern inhabitants depart thence for any time, they speak of nothing but the pleasure they shall find on their return, in drinking the water of the Nile. The knowledge of this circumstance gives a peculiar energy to those words of Moses, when he denounced to

¹ Dr. Harris's Nat. Hist. of the Bible, pp. xxxi.—xxxvii. (American Edit.) or pp. xxiv.—xxx. of the London Edition. See also the Rev. W. Jones's Zoologia Ethica, (Works, vol. iii. pp. 1—116.)

² See particularly Belzoni's Researches in Egypt, p. 325. 4to. edit.; Turner's Tour in the Levant, vol. ii. p. 511.; and Dr. Richardson's Travels along the Shores of the Mediterranean, vol. i. p. 33.

Pharaoh, that the waters of the Nile should be turned into blood, even in the very filtering vessels; and that the Egyptians should *loathe to drink of the water of the river*. (Exod. vii. 17—19.) That is, they should loathe to drink of that water which they used to prefer to all the waters of the universe, and so eagerly to long for, and should prefer to drink of well-water, which in their country is so detestable.¹

After the settlement of the Israelites in Canaan, they drank wine of different sorts, which was preserved in skins. Red wine seems to have been the most esteemed. (Prov. xxiii. 31. Rev. xiv. 20.) In the time of Solomon, *spiced wines* were used, mingled with the juice of the pomegranate. (Song viii. 2.)² When Judæa was under the dominion of the Romans, *medicated wines* (as we have seen) were given to those who were to be crucified, in order to blunt the edge of pain, and stun the acuteness of sensibility.³ The *strong drink* שכר (*sheker*), mentioned in Levit. x. 9. and many other passages of holy writ, means any kind of fermented liquors, whether prepared from corn, dates, apples, or any other kind of fruits. One of the four prohibited drinks among the Mohammedans, is called *sakar*, which though it has the same general meaning as the Hebrew word, especially signifies palm wine.⁴ The patriarchs, like the modern inhabitants of the East, were accustomed to take their meals under the shade of trees. Thus Abraham stood by the angels *under the tree*, and they did eat. (Gen. xviii. 8.) The antient Hebrews did not eat indifferently with all persons; they would have been polluted and dishonoured in their own opinion, by eating with people of another religion, or of an odious profession. In Joseph's time, they neither ate with the Egyptians, nor the Egyptians with them (Gen. xliii. 32.); nor in our Saviour's time with the Samaritans (John iv. 9.); and the Jews were scandalised at Jesus Christ's eating with publicans and sinners. (Matt. ix. 11.) As there were several sorts of meats, whose use was prohibited, they could not conveniently eat with those who partook of them, fearing some pollution by touching them, or if by accident any part of them should fall upon them. The antient Hebrews at their meals had each his separate table. When Joseph entertained his

¹ Harmer's Observations, vol. iii. pp. 564—566. See also a Narrative of the Pacha of Egypt's Expedition to Dongola and Sennaar, by an American, pp. 150, 151. (London, 1822, 8vo.)

² Spiced wines were not peculiar to the Jews. The celebrated Persian poet, Hafiz, speaks of wine — "richly bitter, richly sweet." The Romans lined their vessels (*amphoræ*) with odorous gums, to give the wine a warm bitter flavour: and it is said that the Poles and Spaniards adopt a similar method, in order to impart to their wines a favourite relish. (Odes of Hafiz, translated by Nott, p. 39, note.) The juice of the pomegranate tree is often employed in the East, to give a pleasant sub-acid flavour to a variety of beverages: and where the laws of the Koran are not allowed to interpose, or their prohibitions are disregarded, a delicious wine is frequently manufactured from this juice alone. Harmer's Observations, vol. ii. pp. 145, 146.

³ See p. 156. of this volume.

⁴ C. B. Michaelis, Dissertatio Philologica naturalia quedam et artificialia codicis sacri ex Alcorano illustrans. § xii. In Pott's and Ruperti's Sylloge Commentationum Theologicarum, tom. ii. pp. 49, 50.

brethren in Egypt, he seated each of them at his particular table, and he himself sat down separately from the Egyptians who ate with him: but he sent to his brethren, out of the provisions which were before him. (Gen. xliii. 31. et seq.) Elkanah, Samuel's father, who had two wives, distributed their portions to them separately. (1 Sam. i. 4, 5.) In Homer, each of the guests has his little table apart; and the master of the feast distributes meat to each. We are assured that this is still practised in China; and many in India never eat out of the same dish, nor on the same table, and they believe they cannot do so without sin; and this, not only in their own country, but when travelling, and in foreign lands.¹ The antique manners which we see in Homer, we likewise see in Scripture, with regard to eating, drinking, and entertainments. We find great plenty, but little delicacy; great respect and honour paid to the guests by serving them plentifully: thus Joseph sent his brother Benjamin a portion five times larger than his other brethren; and Samuel set a whole quarter of a calf before Saul. The women did not appear at table in entertainments with the men. This would have been then, as it is at this day throughout the East, an indecency. Thus *Vashti the Queen made a feast for the women in the royal house, which belonged to Ahasuerus* (Esther i. 9.), while the Persian monarch was feasting his nobles.

In India, feasts are given in the open halls and gardens, where a variety of strangers are admitted, and much familiarity is allowed. This easily accounts for a circumstance in the history of Christ which is attended with considerable difficulty;—the penitent Mary coming into the apartment where he was, and anointing his feet with the ointment, and wiping them with the hairs of her head. (Luke vii. 44.) This familiarity is not only common, but is far from being deemed either disrespectful or displeasing.² From the parables of the nuptial feast (Matt. xxii. 2—4.) and of the Great Supper (Luke xiv. 16, 17.) it appears antiently to have been the custom for the parties invited not to go to the entertainment until it was announced to be ready. A similar usage obtains in modern Persia: when Sir Harford Jones, during his political mission thither in 1808—9, dined with the Khan of Bushire, the envoy and his suite did not go to the Khan's residence, until the latter had sent a messenger to say that the entertainment was *ready* for his reception.³ From 1 Sam. xvi. 11. (marginal rendering) and Psal. cxxviii. 3. it should seem that the antient Hebrews sat down round about a mat or low table, cross-legged, in the same manner as is still practised in the East: afterwards, however, they imitated the Persians and Chaldeans, who reclined on table-beds while eating; some traces of which are observable in the Book of Pro-

¹ See examples in Ward's View of the History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. ii. p. 315. Renaudet, Notes sur le Voyage des deux Arabes à la Chine, pp. 123, 124.

² Oriental Memoirs, vol. iii. pp. 183, 190.

³ Sir's Journey through Persia in the years 1808—9. p. 73: London, 1812. 4to.

verbs (xxiii. 1.), in Amos (vi. 4. 7.), Ezekiel (xxiii. 41.), and Tobit (ii. 4.); but this practice was not general. We see expressions in the sacred authors of those times, which prove, that they also sat at table. At Ahasuerus's banquet (Esth. i. 6.), the company lay on beds, and at that which Esther gave the king and Haman. (Esth. vii. 8.) Our Saviour in like manner reclined at table (as already described in pp. 389, 390.), when Mary Magdalen anointed his feet with perfume (Matt. xxvi. 7.), and when John, at the last supper, rested his head on his bosom. (John xiii. 25.) When the food is of a liquid nature, the Arabs and other people of the East, break their bread or cakes into little pieces (*ψωμια*, or *sops*), *dipping their hands and their morsels* therein, as the Israelites did in the time of Ruth and Boaz (Ruth ii. 14.), and the Jews in the time of Christ. (Matt. xxvi. 23. John xiii. 26.)¹ From Neh. viii. 10. 12. and Esth. ix. 19. 22. it appears to have been customary to send a portion of what remained from their public feasts to those, for whom nothing was prepared, or who were by any circumstances prevented from being present at them.

The modern Jews, before they sit down to table, after the example of their ancestors, carefully wash their hands. They speak of this ceremony as being essential and obligatory. After meals they wash them again. When they sit down to table, the master of the house, or chief person in the company, taking bread, breaks it, but does not divide it; then putting his hand on it, he recites this blessing; *Blessed be thou, O Lord our God, the king of the world, who producest the bread of the earth.* Those present answer, *Amen.* Having distributed the bread among the guests, he takes the vessel of the wine in his right hand, saying, *Blessed art thou, O Lord our God, king of the world, who hast produced the fruit of the vine.* They then repeat the 23d Psalm.² They take care, that after meals there shall be a piece of bread remaining on the table; the master of the house orders a glass to be washed, fills it with wine, and elevating it, says, Let us bless him of whose benefits we have been partaking; the rest answer, *Blessed be he, who has heaped his favours on us, and by his goodness has now fed us.* Then he recites a pretty long prayer, wherein he thanks God for his many benefits vouchsafed to Israel: beseeches him to pity Jerusalem and his temple, to restore the throne of David, to send Elias and the Messiah, to deliver them out of their long captivity. All present answer, *Amen.* They recite Psal. xxxiv. 9, 10.; and then after passing the glass with the little wine in it round to those present, he drinks what is left, and the table is cleared.

V. *Strangers* are frequently mentioned in the laws of Moses, who specifies two different descriptions of them, viz. 1. תושבים (*TOSCHABIM*), or those who had no home, whether they were Israelites or foreigners; and 2. גֵּרִים (*GERIM*), or those who were *strangers*

¹ Shaw's Travels, vol. i. p. 418. Schleurner's Lexicon, voce *ψωμων*.

² See Buxtorf's Synag. and Leo of Modena, part ii. c. 10.

of foreigners in the strict sense of the word. Towards both of these classes, the Hebrew legislator enforced the duties of kindness and humanity, by reminding the Israelites that they had once been strangers in Egypt. (Levit. xix. 33, 34. Dent. x. 19. xxiii. 7. xxiv. 18.) Hence he ordained the same rights and privileges for the Israelites, as for strangers. (Lev. xxiv. 19—22. Numb. ix. 14. xv. 5.) Strangers might be naturalised by submitting to circumcision, and renouncing idolatry.

In the earlier periods of the Hebrew state, persons, who were natives of another country, but who had come, either from choice or necessity, to take up their residence among the Hebrews, appear to have been placed in favourable circumstances. At a later period, viz. in the reigns of David and Solomon, they were compelled to labour on the religious edifices, which were erected by those princes; as we may learn from such passages as these. "*And Solomon numbered all the strangers that were in the land of Israel, after the numbering wherewith David his father had numbered them; and they were found an hundred and fifty thousand and three thousand and six hundred; and he set three score and ten thousand of them to be bearers of burdens, and four score thousand to be hewers in the mountain.*" (2 Chron. ii. 1. 17, 18. compared with 1 Chron. xxii. 2.) The exaction of such laborious services from foreigners was probably limited to those, who had been taken prisoners in war; and who, according to the rights of war as they were understood at that period, could be justly employed in any offices, however low and however laborious, which the conqueror thought proper to impose. In the time of Christ, the degenerate Jews did not find it convenient to render to the strangers from a foreign country those deeds of kindness and humanity, which were not only their due, but which were demanded in their behalf by the laws of Moses. They were in the habit of understanding by the word *neighbour*, their friends merely, and accordingly restricted the exercise of their benevolence by the same narrow limits, that bounded in this case their interpretation; contrary as both were to the spirit of those passages, which have been adduced in the preceding paragraph.

Although Moses made abundant provision for the *Poor*, yet it does not appear that he has said any thing respecting *Beggars*. The first express notice of mendicants occurs in Psal. cix. 10., but in those books of the Hebrew Scriptures, which were written subsequently, they are frequently mentioned. In the time of Christ, beggars were found sitting in the streets, at the doors of the rich, at the gates of the temple, and likewise, as we have reason to believe, at the entrance of synagogues. (Mark x. 46. Luke xvi. 20. Acts iii. 2.) Sometimes food and sometimes money was presented to them, (Matt. xxvi. 9. Luke xvi. 21.) We have no reason to suppose, that there existed in the time of Christ that class of persons called *vagrant beggars*, who present their supplications for alms from door to door, and who are found at the present day in the East, although less frequently than in the countries of Europe. That the custom

of seeking alms by sounding a trumpet or horn, which prevails among a class of Mohanmedan monastics, called **KALENDAR** or **KARENDAL**, prevailed also in the time of Christ, may be inferred from Mat. vi. 2.; where the verb *σαλπισης* which possesses the shade of signification, that would be attached to a corresponding word in the Hiphil form of the Hebrew verbs, is to be rendered transitively, as is the case with many other verbs in the New Testament. There is one thing characteristic of those orientals, who are reduced to the disagreeable necessity of following the vocation of mendicants, which is worthy of being mentioned; they do not appeal to the pity or to the alms-giving spirit, but to the justice of their benefactors, (Job xxii. 7. xxxi. 16. Prov. iii. 27, 28.)¹

VI. When persons journeyed, they provided themselves with every necessary, as there were no inns for the reception of travellers. Women and rich men frequently travelled on asses or camels, which carried not only their merchandise, but also their household goods and chattels. And it appears that the Jews often travelled in *caravans* or companies (as the inhabitants of the East do to this day), especially when they went up to Jerusalem at the three great annual festivals. The *Psalms of Ascensions*, or of degrees as they are commonly entitled (cxx.—cxxxiv.), are supposed to have received this appellation from the circumstance of their being sung by the more devout Jews, when they were *ascending* or travelling up to the Holy City on these occasions. The *company*, among which Joseph and Mary supposed Jesus to have been on their return from the passover, when he was twelve years old (Luke ii. 42—44.), was one of these caravans.²

VII. In the East, antiently, as well as in modern times, there were no inns, in which the traveller could meet with refreshment. Shade from the sun, and protection from the plunderers of the night, is all that the *caravanserais* afford. Hence hospitality was deemed a sacred duty incumbent upon every one. The sacred writings exhibit several instances of hospitality, exercised by the patriarchs, and the writings of modern travellers shew that similar hospitality still exists in the East.³ Abraham received three angels, invited them, served them himself, and stood in their presence; Sarah his wife took care of the kitchen, and baked bread for his guests. (Gen. xviii. 2, 3. &c.) Lot waited at the city-gate to receive guests. (Gen. xix. 1.) When the inhabitants of Sodom meant to insult his guests, he went out, he spoke to them, he exposed himself to their fury, and offered rather to give up his own daughters to their brutality, than his guests. (Gen. xix. 5—9.) The same is observable in the old man of *Gibeon*, who had received the young Levite, and his wife. (Judg. xix. 16, 17.) St. Paul (Heb. xiii. 2.) uses Abraham's and Lot's

¹ Koran, c. xvii. 28. xxx. 37. lxx. 24. Buxtorf's Lexicon Chal. Talm. Rabb. p. 1821. Jahn's Archæol. Bibl. § 182, 183.

² See the various passages of Harmer's Observations, referred to in his Index, article *Caravans*. Ward's History of the Hindoos, vol. ii. p. 338. Fragments supplementary to Calmet, No. I.

³ See Light's Travels in Egypt, &c. p. 82.; and Mr. Belzoni's Researches in Egypt, p. 61.

example to encourage the faithful to the exercise of hospitality, saying, that they who have practised it, have merited the honour of receiving angels under the form of men. The primitive Christians made one principal part of their duty to consist in the exercise of this virtue. Our Saviour tells his apostles, that *whoever received them, received him himself*; and that *whosoever should give them even a glass of water, should not lose his reward.* (Matt. xxv. 41. 45.) At the day of judgment, he will say to the wicked, *Depart ye cursed, into everlasting fire: I was a stranger, and ye received me not; inasmuch as ye have not done it unto the least of these, ye have not done it unto me.* St. Peter (1 Ep. iv. 9.) requires the faithful to use hospitality to their brethren without murmuring and complaint. St. Paul in several of his Epistles recommends hospitality. But he recommends it particularly to bishops. (1 Tim. iii. 2. Tit. i. 8.) The primitive Christians were so ready in the discharge of this duty, that the very heathens admired them for it. They were hospitable to all strangers, but especially to those of the same faith and communion. Believers scarcely ever travelled without letters of communion, which testified the purity of their faith: and this procured them a hospitable reception wherever the name of Jesus Christ was known. Calmet is of opinion, that the two last Epistles of St. John may be such kind of letters of communion and recommendation, as were given to Christians who travelled.

Instances of hospitality among the early Greeks, abound in the writings of Homer, whose delineations of manners and customs reflect so much light on the Old Testament, especially on the Pentateuch; and that antient hospitality, which the Greeks considered as so sacred and inviolable, is still partially preserved. When the traveller makes a second tour through the country, he can hardly do any thing more offensive to the person by whom he was entertained in his first journey, than by not again having recourse to the kindness of his former host. Travelling would indeed be impracticable in Greece, if it were not facilitated by this noble sentiment; for the Protogeroi are not found in all parts of the country, and the miserable Khans or caravanseis, are generally constructed only in towns or on highways.

Travelling, in the greater part of Greece, seems to have been, antiently at least, as difficult as it is at the present day: and that circumstance gave rise to the laws of hospitality. This reciprocal hospitality became hereditary in families, even of different nations; and the friendship which was thus contracted, was not less binding than the ties of affinity, or of blood. Those between whom a regard had been cemented by the intercourse of hospitality, were provided with some particular mark, which being handed down from father to son, established a friendship and alliance between the families, for several generations: and the engagement thus entered into, could not be dispensed with, unless publicly disavowed in a manner, nothing being considered so base as a violation of it.

The *συμβολον ξενικον* of the Greeks, and the *tessera*

hospitalis of the Latins. The *συμβολον* was sometimes an astragal¹, probably of lead, which, being cut in halves², one half was kept by the host, and the other by the person whom he had entertained. On future occasions they or their descendants, by whom the symbol was recognised, gave or received hospitality on comparing the two tallies. Mr. Dodwell found some half astragals of lead in Greece, which had probably served for this purpose.³

The antient Romans divided a *tessera* lengthwise, into two equal parts, as signs of hospitality, upon each of which one of the parties wrote his name, and interchanged it with the other. The production of this, when they travelled, gave a mutual claim to the contracting parties and their descendants, for reception and kind treatment at each others' houses, as occasion offered. These *tesserae* were sometimes of stone, shaped in the form of an oblong square: and as they were carefully and privately kept, so that no one might claim the privileges of them, besides the person for whom they were intended, this circumstance gives a beautiful and natural explanation of the following passage in Rev. ii. 17. where it is said, *To him that overcometh, will I give a white stone, and in the stone a new name written, which no man knoweth saving he that receiveth it.* In this passage, the venerable translators of our authorised version, by rendering it a white stone, seem to have confounded it with the *calculus* or small globular stone, which was commonly used for ballotting, and on some other occasions. The original words are *ψηφον λευκον*, which do not specify either the matter or the form, but only the use of it. By this allusion, therefore, the promise made to the church at Pergamos seems to be to this purpose:—"To him that overcometh will I give a pledge of my affection, which shall constitute him my friend, and entitle him to privileges and honours, of which none else can know the value or extent."

¹ The astragal was a bone of the hinder feet of cloven-footed animals. Plin. Nat. Hist. b. xi. c. 45, 46.

² Jacobi Nicolai Ioensis Miscell. Epiphill. p. iv. c. 19. Samuelis Petiti Miscel. b. ii. c. i. Note on v. 613. Euripid. Medea, *Ξενοίς τε πεμπειν συμβολ', οι δρασουσι σ' ευ.*

³ Mr. Dodwell's Classical Tour in Greece, vol. i. p. 519. Plautus, in his play called *Prenulus* (act 5. sc. 2.), represents Hanno the Carthaginian, as retaining a symbol of hospitality reciprocally with Antidamas of Calydon; but Antidamas being dead, he addresses himself to his son Agorastocles, and says:—

————— " Si ita est, tesseram
Conferre, si vis, hospitalem—ecceam attuli."

Agorastocles answers:—

" Age dum hoc ostende, est par probe, nam habeo domum."

To which Hanno:—

" O mi hospes, salve multum, nam mihi tuus pater
Pater tuus ergo hospes Antidamas fuit;
Hæc mihi hospitalis tessera cum illo fuit."

Agorastocles proceeds:—

" Ergo hic apud me hospitium tibi præbebitur."

" If this be the case, here is the tally of hospitality, which I have brought; compare it if you please. — Shew it me; it is indeed the tally to that which I have at home; — My dear host, you are heartily welcome; for your father Antidamas was my host; this was the token of hospitality between him and me, and you shall therefore be kindly received in my house." Ibid. p. 520.

And to this sense the following words very well agree, which describe this stone or *tessera*, as having in it a new name written, which no man knoweth, saving he that receiveth it.¹

CHAPTER VII.

ON THE OCCUPATIONS, ARTS, AND SCIENCES OF THE HEBREWS.

SECTION I.

AGRICULTURE AND HORTICULTURE OF THE JEWS.

I. *Agriculture of the Jews—their Sheep-husbandry.*—II. *Laws of Moses respecting Agriculture.*—III. *Manures known and used by them.*—IV. *Their mode of Ploughing, Sowing, and Reaping.*—V. *Different ways of threshing out Corn.*—VI. *Vineyards, and the Culture of the Vine and Olive.*—Gardens.

I. JUDÆA was eminently an agricultural country; and all the Mosaic statutes were admirably calculated to encourage agriculture as the chief foundation of national prosperity, and also to preserve the Jews detached from the surrounding idolatrous nations. After they had acquired possession of the promised land, the Jews applied themselves wholly to agriculture and the tending of cattle, following the example of their ancestors, the patriarchs, who (like the Arabs, Bedouins, Turcomans, and numerous tribes of eastern Asia,) were generally husbandmen and shepherds, and whose chief riches consisted in cattle, slaves, and the fruits of the earth. Adam brought up his two sons to husbandry, Cain to the *tilling of the ground*, and

¹ Ward's *Dissertations upon several passages of the Sacred Scriptures*, pp. 229—232. London, 1759. 8vo. Dr. T. M. Harris's *Dissertation on the Tessera Hospitalis of the Antient Romans*, annexed to his *Discourses on the Principles, Tendency, and Design of Free-Masonry*. Charlestown (Massachusetts), Anno Lucis 5801. This writer has also given several proofs of the prevalence of a similar practice among the antient Christians, who carried the tessera with them in their travels, as an introduction to the friendship and brotherly kindness of their fellow Christians. Afterwards, heretics, to enjoy those privileges, counterfeited the tessera. The Christians then altered the inscription. This was frequently done till the Nicene Council gave their sanction to those marked with the initials of the words ΠΑΤΗΡ, ΥΙΟΣ, ΑΓΙΟΥ ΠΝΕΥΜΑ; which B. Hildebrand calls, *Tessera Canonice*. The impostor Peregrinus, as we learn from Lucian (*Op. tom. iii. p. 325. Amst. 1743.*), feigned himself a Christian, that he might not only be clothed and fed by the Christians but also be assisted on his travels, and enriched by their generosity; but his artifice was detected and exposed. The procuring of a tessera (Dr. Harris remarks), as a mark of evangelisation, answered all the purposes, and saved all the trouble of formal written certificates, and introductory letters of recommendation. The danger of its being used by impostors, as in the case of Peregrinus, rendered it necessary to preserve the token with great care, and never to produce it but upon special occasions. Notwithstanding the simplicity of this method, it continued in use until the time of Burchardus, archbishop of Worms, who flourished A.D. 1100, and who mentions it in a visitation charge. (Harris's *Sermons*, &c. pp. 319, 320.)

Abel to the feeding of sheep. (Gen. iv. 2.) Jabal was a grazier of cattle, of whom it is said, that *he was the father of such as dwell in tents* (ver. 20.), that is, he travelled with his cattle from place to place, and for that end invented the use of tents, which he carried with him for shelter. After the deluge, Noah resumed his agricultural labours, which had been interrupted by that catastrophe. (Gen. ix. 20.) Abraham and Lot must have had vast herds of cattle, when they were obliged to separate because the land could not contain them (Gen. xiii. 6.); and strifes between the different villagers and herdsmen of Syria still exist, as well as in the days of those patriarchs.¹ Jacob also must have had a greater number, since he could afford a present to his brother Esau of *five hundred and eighty* head of cattle. (Gen. xxxii. 13—17.)² It was their great flocks of cattle which made them in those primitive times put such a price upon wells. These were possessions of inestimable value in a country where it seldom rained, and where there were but few rivers or brooks, and therefore it is no wonder that we read of so many contests about them.

In succeeding ages we find, that the greatest and wealthiest men did not disdain to follow husbandry, however mean that occupation is now accounted.³ Moses, the great lawgiver of the Israelites,

¹ Richardson's *Travels along the Mediterranean*, vol. ii. p. 196.

² The following description of the removal of an Arab horde will afford the reader a lively idea of the primitive manners of the patriarchs. "It was entertaining enough to see the horde of Arabs decamp, as nothing could be more regular. First went the sheep and goatherds, each with their flocks in divisions, according as the chief of each family directed, then followed the camels and asses, loaded with the tents, furniture, and kitchen utensils; these were followed by the old men, women, boys, and girls, on foot. The children that cannot walk are carried on the backs of the young women, or the boys and girls; and the smallest of the lambs and kids are carried under the arms of the children. To each tent belong many dogs, among which are some greyhounds; some tents have from ten to fourteen dogs, and from twenty to thirty men, women and children, belonging to it. The procession is closed by the chief of the tribe, whom they call Emir and Father (emir means prince), mounted on the very best horse, and surrounded by the heads of each family, all on horses, with many servants on foot. Between each family is a division or space of one hundred yards, or more when they migrate; and such great regularity is observed, that neither camels, asses, sheep, nor dogs, mix, but each keeps to the division to which it belongs without the least trouble. They had been here eight days, and were going four hours' journey to the north-west, to another spring of water. This tribe consisted of about eight hundred and fifty men, women, and children. Their flocks of sheep and goats were about five thousand, besides a great number of camels, horses, and asses. Horses and greyhounds they breed and train up for sale: they neither kill nor sell their ewe lambs. At set times a chapter in the Koran is read by the chief of each family, either in or near each tent, the whole family being gathered round, and very attentive." *Tarson's Travels from Aleppo to Bagdad*, pp. 109, 110. London, 1808. 4to.

³ Honourable as the occupation of a shepherd was among the Hebrews, it was an abomination to the Egyptians (Gen. xvi. 34.) at the time when Jacob and his children went down into Egypt. — From the fragments of the ancient historian Manetho, preserved in Josephus and Africanus, it appears, that that country had been invaded by a colony of Nomades or Shepherds, descended from Cush, who established themselves there, and had a succession of kings. After many wars between them and the Egyptians, in which some of their principal cities were burnt and great cruelties were committed, they were compelled to evacuate the country; but not till they had been in possession of it for a period of nine hundred years. This alone was sufficient to render shepherds odious to the Egyptians: but they were still more obnoxious, because they

was a shepherd. Shamgar was taken from the herd to be a judge in Israel, and Gideon from his threshing-floor (Judg. vi. 11.), as were Jair and Jephthah from the keeping of sheep. When Saul received the news of the danger to which the city of Jabesh-gilead was exposed, he was coming after the herd out of the field, notwithstanding he was a king. (1 Sam. xi. 5.) And king David, *from feeding the ewes great with young, was brought to feed Jacob his people and Israel his inheritance.* (Psal. lxxviii. 71.) King Uzziah is said to be a lover of husbandry (2 Chron. xxvi. 10.); and some of the prophets were called from that employment to the prophetic dignity as Elisha was from the plough (1 Kings xix. 19.), and Amos from being a herdsman. But the tending of the flocks was not confined to the men¹: in the primitive ages, rich and noble women were accustomed to keep sheep, and to draw water as well as those of inferior quality. Thus, Rebecca, the daughter of Bethuel, Abraham's brother, carried a pitcher, and drew water (Gen. xxiv. 15. 19.), as the women of Palestine still generally do; Rachel, the daughter of Laban, kept her father's sheep (Gen. xxix. 9.); and Zipporah, with her six sisters had the care of their father Jethro's flocks, who was a prince or (which in those times was an honour scarcely inferior) a priest of Midian. (Exod. ii. 16.) Repeated instances occur in Homer, of the daughters of princes tending flocks, and performing other menial services.²

II. Moses, following the example of the Egyptians, made agriculture the basis of the state. He accordingly appointed to every citizen a certain quantity of land, and gave him the right of cultivating it himself and of transmitting it to his heirs. The person who had thus come into possession, could not alienate the property for any longer period than the coming jubilee: a regulation, which prevented the rich from coming into the possession of large tracts of land, and then leasing them out to the poor, in small parcels; — a practice which antiently prevailed, and exists to this day in the East. And the law of Moses enacted, that the vendor of a piece of land, or his nearest relative, had a right to redeem the land sold, whenever they chose, by paying the amount of profits up to the year of jubilee (Ruth, iv. 4. Jer. xxxii. 7, 8.); and by a third law the Israelites were required (as was the case among the Egyptians after the time of Joseph, Gen. xlvii. 18—26.) to pay a tax of two tenths of their income unto God; whose servants they were to consider themselves, and whom they were to obey as their king. (Lev. xxv. 20, 31. Deut. xii. 17—19. xiv. 22—29.) The custom of marking the boundaries of lands by stones (though it prevailed a long time before

killed and ate those animals, particularly the sheep and the ox, which were accounted most sacred among them. See Bryant's *Analysis of Antient Mythology*, vol. vi. pp. 192—211. 8vo. edit.

¹ From Hector's address to his horses, it appears that his wife, Andromache, though a princess, did not think it beneath her dignity to feed those animals herself. *Iliad*, xiii. 185—

Moses, Job. xxiv. 2.), was confirmed and perpetuated by an express law, which prohibited the removal of such land-marks (Deut. xix. 14.), and denounced a curse against the person who removed them without authority. (Deut. xxvii. 17.)

These regulations having been made in respect to the tenure, incumbrances, &c. of landed property, Joshua divided the whole country which he had occupied, *first*, among the several tribes, and *secondly*, among individual Israelites, running it out with the aid of a measuring line. (Josh. xvii. 5, 14. compared with Amos vii. 17. Mic. ii. 5. Psal. lxxviii. 55. and Ezek. xl. 3.) From this circumstance the line is frequently used, by a figure of speech, for the heritage itself. (See instances in Psal. xvi. 6. and Josh. xix. 9. Heb.)¹

The fixing of every one's inheritance in the family to which it had been appropriated in the first division of Canaan, was doubtless one great reason, which made the Jews chiefly follow husbandry and improve their estates: for though (as we have seen), an inheritance might have been alienated for a time, yet it always returned in the year of jubilee. Their being prohibited also to take any interest from their brethren for the use of money, and the strict injunctions laid upon them by Jehovah, with respect to their dealings and commerce with foreigners, deprived them so much of the ordinary advantages thence arising, that they were in a manner obliged to procure their living from the fruits and produce of the earth, the improvement of which constituted their chief care.

III. Although the Scriptures do not furnish us with any *details* respecting the state of agriculture in Judæa, yet we may collect from various passages many interesting hints that will enable us to form a tolerably correct idea of the high state of its cultivation. From the parable of the *vineyard let forth to husbandmen* (Matt. xxi. 33, 34.) we learn that rents of land were paid by a part of the produce; a mode of payment formerly practised by the Romans², which antiently obtained in this country³, and which is still practised by the Italians.⁴

The soil of Palestine is very fruitful, if the dews and vernal and autumnal rains are not withheld: but the Hebrews notwithstanding the richness of the soil, endeavoured to increase its fertility in various ways. With the use of manures, the Jews were unquestionably acquainted. Dove's dung (2 Kings vi. 25.) appears to have been very highly valued by the Jews, as to this day it is by the Persians.⁵ Salt, either by itself or mixed in the dunghill in

¹ Jahn's *A. Archæol. Bibl.* § 55.

² See Plin. *Epist.* lib. ix. Ep. 37. Horat. *Epist.* lib. i. Ep. 14. 42.

³ The *Boldon Book*, a survey of the state of the bishopric of Durham made in 1183, shews what proportion of the rent was paid in cows, sheep, pigs, fowls, eggs, &c., the remainder being made up chiefly by manual labour.

⁴ See Blunt's *Vestiges of Ancient Manners and Customs in Modern Italy*, p. 220. London, 1823, 8vo.

⁵ "The dung of pigeons is the dearest manure that the Persians use; and as they apply it almost entirely for the rearing of melons, it is probable, on that account, that the

order to promote putrefaction, is specially mentioned as one article of manure (Matt. v. 13. Luke xiv. 34, 35.): and as the river Jordan annually overflowed its banks, the mud deposited when its waters subsided, must have served as a valuable irrigation and top-dressing, particularly to the pasture lands. It is probable that, after the waters had thus subsided, seed was sown on the wet soft ground; in allusion to which Solomon says, *Cast thy bread (corn or seed) upon the waters: for thou shalt find it again, with increase, after many days.* (Eccles. xi. 1.) And Isaiah, promising a time of peace and plenty, says — Blessed are ye that sow beside all waters, and send forth thither the feet of the ox and the ass. (Isa. xxxii. 30.)

In Egypt, such vegetable productions, as require more moisture than that which is produced by the inundation of the Nile, are refreshed by water drawn out of the river, and afterwards deposited in capacious cisterns. When, therefore, their various sorts of pulse, melons, sugar-canes, &c. all of which are commonly ploughed in rills, require to be refreshed, they strike out the plugs which are fixed in the bottom of the cisterns; whence the water, gushing out, is conducted from one rill to another by the gardener, who is always ready, as occasion requires, to stop and divert the torrent, by *turning the earth against it by his foot*, and at the same time opening, with his mattock, a new trench to receive it. This mode of imparting moisture and nourishment to a land, rarely, if ever, refreshed with rain, is often alluded to in the Scriptures, where it is made the distinguishing quality between Egypt and the land of Canaan. *For the land, says Moses, whither thou goest in to possess it, is not as the land of Egypt from whence ye came out, where thou sowedst thy seed, and wateredst it with thy foot as a garden of herbs: but the land, whither ye go to possess it, is a land of hills and valleys, and drinketh water of the rain of heaven.* (Deut. xi. 10, 11.)¹ This method of irrigation is alluded to in Psal. i. 3., where the good man is compared to a fruitful tree, *planted by the rivers of water*. פלגים מים (palgey-mayim), that is, the streams or divisions of the waters, meaning those which are turned on and off as above-mentioned, by the cultivator.² The prophet Jeremiah has imitated, and elegantly amplified the passage of the Psalmist above referred to:

“He shall be like a tree planted by the water-side;
 “And which sendeth forth her roots to the aqueduct:
 “She shall not fear, when the heat cometh
 “But her leaf shall be green;

melons of Ispahan are so much finer than those of other cities. The revenue of a pigeon-house is about an hundred tomans per annum; and the great value of this dung, which rears a fruit that is indispensable to the existence of the natives during the great heats of summer, will probably throw some light upon that passage in Scripture, where, in the famine of Samaria, the fourth part of a cab of dove's dung was sold for five pieces of silver. 2 Kings vi. 25.” Morier's *Second Journey through Persia*, p. 141. See also Sir R. K. Porter's *Travels in Persia*, vol. i. p. 451.

¹ Dr. Shaw's *Travels in Barbary*, &c. vol. ii. pp. 266, 267.

² Dr. A. Clarke on Psal. i. 3. See also Burder's *Oriental Literature*, vol. ii. p. 1.

"And in the year of drouglt she shall not be anxious,
 "Neither shall she cease from bearing fruit."

Jer. xvii. 8.

From this image the son of Sirach has most beautifully illustrated the influence and the increase of religious wisdom in a well-prepared heart :

"I also came forth as a canal from a river,
 "And as a conduit flowing into a paradise.
 "I said : I will water my garden,
 "And I will abundantly moisten my border :
 "And lo ! my canal became a river,
 "And my river became a sea."

Eccclus. xxiv. 30, 31.

This gives us the true meaning of the following elegant Proverb :

"The heart of the king is like the canals of waters in the hand of Jehovah ;
 "Whithersoever it pleaseth him, he inclineth it."

Prov. xxi. 1.

The direction of it is in the hand of Jehovah, as the distribution of the water of the reservoir, through the garden by different canals, is at the will of the gardener.

Solomon mentions his own works of this kind :

"I made me gardens and paradises ;
 "And I planted in them all kinds of fruit-trees.
 "I made me pools of water,
 "To water with them the grove flourishing with trees."

Eccles. ii. 5. 9. ¹

IV. In the first ages of the world, men were chiefly employed in digging and throwing up the earth with their own hands, but Noah advanced the art of husbandry (Gen. ix. 20.), and contrived fitter instruments for ploughing than were known before. This patriarch is called a *man of the ground*, but in our translation, a *husbandman*, on account of his improvements in agriculture, and his inventions for making the earth more tractable and fruitful. It was a curse upon the earth after the fall, that it should bring forth thorns and thistles: these obstructions were to be removed, which required much labour, and the ground was to be corrected by ploughing.

The earliest mention, made in the Old Testament of a *Plough*, is in Deut. xxi. 10. where the Israelites are prohibited from ploughing *with an ox and an ass together* ; a plain intimation,

¹ Bp. Lowth's *Isaiah*, v. l. ii. pp. 24, 25. Maundrell (p. 88.) has given a description of the remains, as they are said to be, of these very pools made by Solomon, for the reception and preservation of the waters of a spring, rising at a little distance from them ; which will give us a perfect notion of the contrivance and design of such reservoirs. "As for the pools, they are three in number, lying in a row above each other ; being so disposed, that the waters of the uppermost may descend into the second, and those of the second into the third. Their figure is quadrangular ; the breadth is the same in all, amounting to about ninety paces : in their length there is some difference between them ; the first being one hundred and sixty paces long ; the second, two hundred ; the third two hundred and twenty. They are all lined with wall, and plastered ; and contain a great depth of water."

that it had been customary with the idolatrous nations of the East to do so. In Syria, the plough is still drawn, frequently by one small cow, at most with two, and sometimes only by an ass.¹ In Persia, Mr. Morier states, that it is for the most part drawn by one ox only, and not unfrequently by an ass.² In Egypt they plough with two oxen.³ The plough appears to have been furnished with a share and coulter, probably not very unlike those which are now in use. (1 Sam. xiii. 20, 21. Isa. ii. 4. Joel. iii. 10. Mich. iv. 3.) The intelligent traveller, Maundrell, in his journey from Jerusalem to Aleppo, relates, that when he was near Jerusalem, he came to a certain place, where (says he) "the country people were every where at plough in the fields, in order to sow cotton : it was observable, that in ploughing, they used goads of an extraordinary size ; upon measuring of several, I found them to be about eight feet long, and, at the bigger end, six inches in circumference. They were armed at the lesser end with a sharp prickle, for driving of the oxen, and at the other end, with a small spade, or paddle of iron, strong and massy, for cleansing the plough from the clay that incumbers it in working. May we not from hence conjecture, that it was with such a goad as one of these, that Shamgar made that prodigious slaughter related of him ? I am confident that whoever should see one of these instruments, would judge it to be a weapon, not less fit, perhaps fitter, than a sword for such an execution : goads of this sort I saw always used hereabouts, and also in Syria ; and the reason is, because the same single person both drives the oxen, and also holds and manages the plough ; which makes it necessary to use such a goad as is above described, to avoid the incumbrance of two instruments."⁴

The method of managing the ground, and preparing it for the seed, was much the same with the practice of the present times ; for Jeremiah speaks of ploughing up the fallow ground (Jerem. iv. 3.), and Isaiah of harrowing or breaking up the clods (Isa. xxviii. 24.) ; but Moses, for wise reasons doubtless, gave a positive injunction, that they should not sow their fields with mingled seed.

The kinds of grain sowed by the Jews were fitches, cummin, wheat, barley, and rye. (Isa. xxviii. 25.) The cultivated fields were guarded by watchmen (as they still are, in the East) who sit upon a seat hung in a tree, or in a lodge or watch-tower made of planks, and keep off birds, beasts, and thieves. (Jer. iv. 16; 17. Isa. xxiv. 20.) It was lawful for travellers to pluck ears from the standing corn in another's field, and to eat them ; but they were on no account to use a sickle. (Deut. xxiii. 25. compared with Matt. xii. 1. Mark ii. 23. and Luke vi. 1.) There were three months between

¹ Dr. Russel's Hist. of Aleppo, vol. i. p. 73.

² Morier's First Travels in Persia, p. 60.

³ Dr. Richardson's Travels, vol. ii. p. 167.

⁴ Maundrell's Travels, p. 110. In January, 1816, Mr. Buckingham observed similar goads in use at Has-el-Hin, in the vicinity of the modern town of Sour, which stands on the coast of Syria. Travels in Palestine, p. 57.

their sowing, and their first reaping, and four months to their full harvest; their barley harvest was at the passover, and their wheat harvest at the Pentecost. The reapers made use of sickles, and according to the present custom they filled their hands with the corn, and those who bound up the sheaves their bosom: there was a person *set over the reapers* (Ruth ii. 5.) to see that they did their work, that they had provision proper for them, and to pay them their wages: the Chaldees call him *Rab*, the master, the ruler, or governor of the reapers. Women were employed in reaping as well as the men, and such was the piety of antient times, that those who came into the field, saluted their labourers at work in this form, *the Lord be with you!* to which they answered, *the Lord bless thee!* (Ruth ii. 4.) The reapers were usually entertained above the rank of common servants, though in the time of Boaz we find nothing provided for them but bread and parched corn; and their sauce was vinegar (a kind of weak wine), which doubtless was very cooling in those hot countries. (Ruth ii. 14.) The poor were allowed the liberty of gleaning, though the land-owners were not bound to admit them immediately into the field as soon as the reapers had cut down the corn and bound it up in sheaves, but when it was carried off: they might choose also among the poor, whom they thought most worthy, or most necessitous. A sheaf left in the field, even though discovered, was not to be taken up, but to be left for the poor. (Deut. xxiv. 19.) The conclusion of the harvest, or carrying home the last load, was with the Jews a season of joyous festivity, and was celebrated with a harvest feast. (Psal. cxxvi. 6. Isa. ix. 3. xvi. 9, 10.) The corn, being cut and carried in waggons or carts (Numb. vii. 3—8. Isa. xxviii. 27, 28. Amos ii. 13.), was either laid up in stacks (Exod. xxii. 6.) or barns (Matt. vi. 26. xiii. 30. Luke xii. 18. 24.); and, when threshed out, was stored in granaries or garners. (Matt. iii. 12.) David had *storehouses in the fields, in the cities, and in the villages, and in the castles*. (1 Chron. xxvii. 25.)

V. After the grain was carried into the barn, the next concern was to thresh or beat the corn out of the ear, which process was performed in various ways. Sometimes it was done by horses (Isa. xxviii. 28.), and by oxen, that trod out the corn with their hoofs shod with brass. (Mich. iv. 12, 13.) This mode of threshing is expressly referred to by Hosea (x. 11.), and in the prohibition of Moses against *muzzling the ox that treadeth out the corn* (Deut. xxv. 4.), and it obtains in Persia¹ and India² to this day, where oxen are employed; as buffaloes are in Ceylon, asses in North Africa, and horses in Crim Tatory.³ Another mode of threshing was,

¹ Sir R. K. Porter's Travels in Georgia, Persia, &c. vol. ii. p. 90.

² See Turner's Embassy to Thibet, p. 184.

³ Ward's History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. ii. p. 320.; Dr. Davy's Travels in the Interior of Ceylon, p. 275. (London, 1821), where a threshing-floor is delineated; Capt. Lyon's Tour in Mourzouk and Fezzan, p. 169.; Mrs. Holderness's Notes on the Crim Tatars, p. 97. (London, 1821.) See also Mr Dodwell's Classical Tour in Greece, vol. ii. p. 10.

by drawing a loaded cart with wheels, over the corn, backwards and forwards; so that the wheels running over it, forcibly shook out the grain (Isa. xxviii. 28.): but the most common mode appears to have been that which is in use in this country, viz. by flails. Thus the fitches are said to be beaten out with a staff, and the cummin with a rod. In this manner Gideon and Araunah or Ornan threshed out their wheat (Judg. vi. 11. 1 Chron. xxi. 20.); for it is represented as their own personal action.

The threshing floors were places of great note among the ancient Hebrews, particularly that of Araunah the Jebusite, which was the spot of ground chosen by king David on which to build the altar of God (2 Sam. xxiv. 25.), and this was the very place where the temple of Solomon was afterwards erected. (2 Chron. iii. 1.) These floors were covered at the top to keep off the rain, but lay open on all sides, that the wind might come in freely, for the winnowing of the corn; which being done, they were shut up at night, with doors fitted to them, that if any body lay there, he might be kept warm, and the corn be secured from the danger of robbers (Ruth iii. 6.); the time of winnowing, or separating the corn from the chaff, was in the evening, when the heat of the day was over, and cool breezes began to rise; for this purpose, they had the same implements which are in common use; for Isaiah speaks of winnowing *with the shovel, and with the fan*. (Isa. xxx. 24.) The grain, being threshed, was thrown into the middle of the threshing floor; it was then exposed with a fork to a gentle wind (Jer. iv. 11, 12.), which separated the broken straw and the chaff: so that the kernels, and clods of earth with grain cleaving to them, and the ears not yet thoroughly threshed, fell upon the ground. The clods of earth, as is customary in the East at the present day, were collected, broken in pieces, and separated from the grain by a sieve: whence the operation of sifting is, in prophetic language, a symbol of misfortune and overthrows. (Amos ix. 9. Luke xxii. 31.) The heap thus winnowed, which still contained many ears that were broken but not fully threshed out, was again exposed in the threshing floor, and several yoke of oxen were driven over it, for the purpose of treading out the remainder of the grain. At length the grain mingled with the chaff, was again exposed to the wind by a fan, which bore off the chaff, so that the pure wheat fell upon the floor. (Ruth iii. 2. Isa. xxx. 24.) In the figurative language of prophecy, this process is symbolical of the dispersion of a vanquished people (Isa. xli. 15, 16. Jer. xv. 7. li. 2.), and also of the final separation between the righteous and the wicked. (Job xxi. 18. Psal. i. 4. xxxv. 5. Matt. iii. 12. Luke iii. 17.) The scattered straw, as much at least as was required for the manufacturing of bricks and for the fodder of cattle, was collected; but the residue was reduced to ashes by fire: from this custom the sacred writers have derived a figurative enote the destruction of wicked men. (Isa. v. 24. 30. Mal. iv. 1. Matt. iii. 12.)

was threshed, it was dried either in the sun, or by

a fire, or in a furnace. This is called parched corn (Levit. xxiii. 14. 1 Sam. xvii. 17. and xxv. 18.), and was sometimes used in this manner for food without any farther preparation, but generally the parching or drying it, was in order to make it more fit for grinding. This process was performed either in mortars or mills, both of which are mentioned in Numb. xi. 8. And Solomon speaks of the former, when he compares the braying of a fool in a mortar to the like practice used with wheat. (Prov. xxvii. 22.) But mills were chiefly employed for this purpose; and they were deemed of such use and necessity, that the Israelites were strictly forbidden *to take the nether or upper mill-stone in pledge*; the reason of which is added, because this was taking a man's life in pledge (Deut. xxiv. 6.), intimating that while the mill ceases to grind, people are in danger of being starved.

The grinding at mills was accounted an inferior sort of work, and therefore prisoners and captives were generally put to it. To this work Samson was set, while he was in the prison-house. (Judg. xvi. 21.) There hand-mills were usually kept, by which prisoners earned their living. (Lam. v. 13.) The expression in Isa. xlvi. 2. — *Take the mill-stones, and grind meal*, — is part of the description of a slave. In Barbary, most families grind their wheat and barley at home, having two portable mill-stones for that purpose; the uppermost of which is turned round by a small handle of wood or iron, that is placed in the rim. When this stone is large, or expedition is required, a second person is called in to assist: and it is in that country usual for the women alone to be thus employed, who seat themselves over against each other with the mill-stones between them. This practice illustrates the propriety of the expression of sitting *behind the mill* (Exod. xi. 5.), and also the declaration of our Lord, that *two women shall be grinding at the mill; the one shall be taken and the other left*. (Matt. xxiv. 41.)¹ From Jer. xxv. 10. and Rev. xviii. 22., it appears that those who were occupied in grinding beguiled their laborious task by singing, as the Barbary women continue to do to this day.

The sacred poets derive many beautiful images from the rural and domestic economy of the Jews; and as the same pursuits were cherished and followed by the Jews during the manifestation of our Redeemer, it is natural to imagine that in the writings of Jews there must occur frequent allusions to the implements and arts of agriculture, and to those rustic occupations which in general formed the study and exercise of this nation. Hence the beautiful images and apt similitudes in the following passages. No one having *put his hand to the plough and looking back, is fit for the kingdom of God*. — *Ye are God's husbandry, or cultivated field*.² — *A workman, that needeth not to be ashamed, rightly dividing*³ the word of

¹ Dr. Shaw's Travels in Barbary, vol. i. p. 416.

² 1 Cor. iii. 9. Θεοῦ γεωργίαι.

³ 2 Tim. ii. 15. Εργάζην ὁρθογώνιον. A beautiful and expressive image taken from an husbandman (εργαῖος) drawing his furrow even, and cutting the ground in a direct line;

truth. — *Wherefore lay apart all filthiness and superfluity of naughtiness, and receive with meekness the engrafted word. Whatsoever a*

*SOWETH, that shall he REAP: he that SOWETH to the flesh — lives sensual life, — shall from the flesh REAP destruction, but he that SOWETH to the spirit, — lives a rational life, — shall from the spirit REAP everlasting life. — Consider the ravens, they sow not, neither do they REAP, or gather into barns, yet your heavenly Father feedeth them. — I am the good SHEPHERD, and know my SHEEP, and am known of mine. The sheep hear his voice, and he calleth his own sheep by name (John x. 3.)¹; and leadeth them out. And when he putteth forth his own sheep, he goeth before them, and the sheep follow him, for they know his voice. And a stranger will they not follow, but will flee from him, for they know not the voice of strangers.² (John x. 4, 5.) — Fear not, LITTLE FLOCK, it is your Father's good pleasure to give you the kingdom. How striking is the parable of the sower, which, by seed, scattered promiscuously, and in every direction by an husbandman, and meeting a various fate according to the respective nature of the soil into which it fell, represents the different reception which Gospel doctrine would experience in the world, according to the different dispositions and principles of that mind into which it was admitted! *He that soweth the GOOD SEED, is the son of man; the FIELD is the world; the GOOD SEED are the children of the kingdom; the TARES are the children of the wicked one; the enemy that SOWED them is the devil; the HARVEST is the end of the world; and the REAPERS are the angels. As therefore the TARES are gathered and burnt in the fire, so shall it be in the end of the world. — Whose FAN is in his hand, and he will thoroughly PURGE his FLOOR, and GATHER his WHEAT into the GARNER, but he will BURN UP the CHAFF with UNQUENCHABLE FIRE.* By what an apt and awful similitude does St. Paul represent God's rejection of the Jews and admission of the heathens, by the boughs of an olive being lopped off, and the scion of a young olive ingrafted into the old tree (Romans xi. 17., &c.); and, continuing the same imagery, how strictly does he caution the Gentiles against insolently exulting over the mutilated branches, and cherishing the vain conceit that the boughs were lopped off merely that they might be ingrafted; for if God spared not the native branches, they had greater reason to fear lest he would not spare them; that they should remember that the Jews through*

¹ He calleth his own sheep by name. By this allusion it appears that it is customary for the Jewish shepherds to give their sheep particular names, as we do our horses, cows, dogs, &c.

² Polybius, speaking of the flocks in the island of Cyrrhon, notices a practice which illustrates in a very striking manner the allusion of our Saviour. When any strangers land there, in order to lay hold of them, the sheep immediately run away: but when the shepherd blows his horn, they immediately run towards it. Nor, adds the historian, is it at all wonderful that they should thus obey the sound, since, in Italy, the keepers of swine do not observe the custom of Greece in following their herd; but, going before them to some distance, they sound their horn, and the herd immediately follow them, flocking to the sound; and, accustomed are they to their own horn, as to excite no little astonishment at the loud ringing of it. Polybius, lib. xiv. pp. 654, 655. Herodotus, 1619.

their wilful disbelief of Christianity were cut off, and that they, the Gentiles, if they disgrace their religion, would in like manner forfeit the divine favour, and their present flourishing branches be also cut down. To inspire the Gentile Christians with humility, he concludes with assuring them that the Jewish nation, though they had experienced this severity of God, as he calls it, were not totally forsaken of the Almighty; that the branches, though cut down and robbed of their antient honours, were not abandoned to perish: when the Jews returned from their infidelity they would be ingrafted:—an omnipotent hand was still able to reinsert them into their original stock. For if thou, O heathen, the scion of an unfruitful wild olive, wert cut out of thy own native barren tree, and, by a process repugnant to the ordinary laws of nature, wert ingrafted into the fruitful generous olive—how much more will not those, who naturally belong to the antient stock, be, in future time, ingrafted into their own kindred olive! With what singular beauty and propriety is the gradual progress of religion in the soul, from the beginning to its maturity, represented by seed committed to a generous soil, which, after a few successions of day and night, imperceptibly vegetates—peeps above the surface—springs higher and higher—and spontaneously producing, first, the verdant blade—then the ear—afterwards the swelling grain, gradually filling the ear (Mark iv. 27, 28.)¹; and when the time of harvest is come, and it is arrived at its maturity, it is then reaped and collected into the storehouse. Beautiful illustrations and images like these, taken from rural life, must seal the strongest impressions, particularly upon the minds of Jews, who were daily employed in these occupations, from which these pertinent similes and expressive comparisons were borrowed.

VI. Palestine abounded with generous wine; and in some districts the grapes were of superior quality. The canton allotted to Judah was celebrated on this account; and it is perhaps with reference to this circumstance, that the venerable patriarch said of his son Judah, — *He washed his garments in wine, and his clothes in the BLOOD OF GRAPES.* (Gen. xlix. 11.) In this district were the vales of Sorek and of Eschol; and the cluster which the Hebrew spies carried from this last place, was so large as to be carried on a staff between two of them (Numb. xiii. 23.); Lebanon (Hos. xiv. 7.), and Helbon (Ezek. xxvii. 18.), were likewise celebrated for their exquisite wines.

The Jews planted their vineyards most commonly on the south side of a hill or mountain, the stones being gathered out and the space hedged round with thorns or walled. (Isa. v. 1—6. compared with Psal. lxxx. 8—16. and Matt. xxi. 33.) A good vineyard consisted of a thousand vines, and produced a rent of a thousand silver-

¹ *Seminis modo spargenda sunt, quod quamvis sit exiguum, cum occupavit idoneum locum, vires suas explicat, et ex minimo in maximos auctus diffunditur. Seneca Opera, tom. iii. epist. 88, p. 184. edit. Gronovii. 1679.*

lings, or shekels of silver. (Isa. vii. 23.) It required two hundred m^{ore} to pay the dressers. (Song of Solomon viii. 11, 12.) In these keepers and vine-dressers laboured, digging, planting, pruning, l propping the vines, gathering the grapes, and making wine. This was at once a laborious task, and often reckoned a base one. 2 Kings xxv. 12. Song of Solomon i. 6. Isa. lxi. 5.) Some of the st vineyards were at Engedi, or perhaps at Baal-hamon, which might not be far distant, and at Sibmah. (Song of Solomon i. 14. viii. 11. Isa. xvi. 9.) Vines also were trained upon the walls of the houses.¹ (Psal. cxxviii. 3.) *The vines with the tender grapes gave a good smell early in the spring* (Song of Solomon ii. 13.), as we learn also, from Isa. xviii. 5. *before the harvest, that is, the barley harvest, when the bud is perfect, and the sour grape is ripening in the flower.*

“ *The vintage followed the wheat harvest and the threshing* (Levit. xxvi. 5. Amos ix. 13.), about June or July, when the clusters of the grapes were gathered with a sickle, and put into baskets (Jerem. vi. 9.), carried and thrown into the wine-vat, or wine-press, where they were probably first trodden by men and then pressed. (Rev. xiv. 18—20.) It is mentioned, as a mark of the great work and power of the Messiah, *I have trodden the figurative wine-press alone; and of the people there was none with me.* (Isa. lxiii. 3.; see also Rev. xix. 15.) The vintage was a season of great mirth. Of the juice of the squeezed grapes were formed wine and vinegar. The wines of Helbon², near Damascus, and of Lebanon, where the vines had a fine sun, were reckoned most excellent. (Ezek. xxvii. 18. Hos. xiv. 7.) The wines of Canaan being very heady, were commonly mixed with water for common use, as the Italians do theirs; and sometimes they scented them with frankincense, myrrh, calamus, and other spices (Prov. ix. 2. 5. Song of Solomon viii. 2.); they also scented their wine with pomegranates, or made wine of their juice, as we do of the juice of currants, gooseberries, &c. fermented with sugar. Wine is best when old and on the lees, the dregs having sunk to the bottom. (Isa. xxv. 6.) Sweet wine is that which is made from grapes fully ripe. (Isa. xlix. 26.) The Israelites had two kinds of vinegar, the one was a weak wine, which was used for their common drink in the harvest field, &c. (Ruth ii. 14.), as the Spaniards and Italians still do; and it was probably of this that Solomon was

¹ The same mode of culture is practised in Persia to this day. Mr. Morier has given an engraving on wood illustrative of this custom, which beautifully elucidates the patriarch Jacob's comparison of Joseph to a fruitful bough, whose branches run over the wall. (Gen. xlix. 22.) Second Journey, p. 232. In the route between Jerusalem and the convent of Saint Elias, (which is situated about an hour's distance from that city,) Mr. Buckingham was particularly struck with the appearance of several small and detached square towers in the midst of the vine-lands. These, his guide informed him, were used as watch-towers, whence watchmen to this day look out, in order to guard the produce of the lands from depredation. This fact will explain the use and intention of the tower, mentioned in Matt. xxi. 23. and Mark xii. 1.

² At one time the wine of Helbon (which place Strabo terms Chalybon) was held in such repute, that it was appropriated exclusively to the use of the kings of Persia. Strabo Geographia, tom. ii. p. 1043. edit. Oxon.

to furnish *twenty thousand baths* to Hiram, for his servants, hewers that cut timber in Lebanon. (2 Chron. ii. 10.) The *otter* had a sharp acid taste, like ours; and hence Solomon hints, that, *sluggard vexes and hurts such as employ him in business; as vinegar is disagreeable to the teeth, and smoke to the eyes* (Prov. x. 26.); and *as vinegar poured upon nitre spoils its virtue; so he that singeth songs to a heavy heart, does but add to its grief.* (Prov. xxv. 20.) The poor were allowed to *glean* grapes, as well as corn and other articles (Levit. xix. 10. Deut. xxiv. 21. Isa. iii. 14. xvii. 6. xxiv. 13. Mich. vii. 1.); and we learn that *the gleanings of the grapes of Ephraim was better than the vintage of Abiezer.* (Judges viii. 2.) The vineyard was not to be pruned and dressed in the sabbatical year. (Levit. xxv. 3, 4.) The vessels in which the wine was kept were, probably, for the most part, *bottles*, which were usually made of *leather*, or goat skins, firmly sewed and pitched together. The Arabs pull the skin off goats in the same manner that we do from rabbits, and sew up the places where the legs and tail were cut off, leaving one for the neck of the bottle, to pour from; and in such bags, they put up and carry, not only their liquors, but dry things which are not apt to be broken; by which means they are well preserved from wet, dust, or insects. These would in time crack and wear out. Hence, when the Gibeonites came to Joshua, pretending that they came from a far country, amongst other things they brought *wine bottles old and rent, and bound up where they had leaked.* (Josh. ix. 4. 13.) Thus, too, it was not expedient to put new wine into old bottles, because the fermentation of it would break or crack the bottles. (Matt. ix. 17.) And thus David complains, that he is become like *a bottle in the smoke*; that is, a bottle dried, and cracked, and worn out, and unfit for service. (Psalm cxix. 83.) These bottles were probably of various sizes, and sometimes very large; for when Abigail went to meet David and his four hundred men, and took a present to pacify and supply him, *two hundred loaves and five sheep ready dressed, &c.* she took only *two bottles of wine* (1 Sam. xxv. 18.); a very disproportionate quantity, unless the bottles were large. But the Israelites had *bottles* likewise made by the *potters*. (See Isa. xxx. 14. margin, and Jerem. xix. 1. 10. xlviii. 12.) We hear also of vessels called *barrels*. That of the widow, in which her meal was held (1 Kings xvii. 12. 14.) was not probably very large; but those four in which the water was brought up from the sea, at the bottom of Mount Carmel, to pour upon Elijah's sacrifice and altar, must have been large. (1 Kings xviii. 33.) We read likewise of other *vessels*, which the widow of Shunem borrowed of her neighbours, to hold the miraculous supply of oil (2 Kings iv. 2—6.); and of the *water-pots*, or jars, or jugs, of *stone*, of considerable size, in which our Lord caused the water to be converted into wine. (John ii. 6.) Grapes, among the Israelites, were likewise *dried* into *raisins*. A part of Abigail's present to David was *an hundred clusters of raisins* (1 Sam. xxv. 18.); and when Ziba met David, his present contained

the same quantity. (2 Sam. xvi. 1.; see also 1 Sam. xxx. 12. and 1 Chron. xii. 40.)”¹

It was a curse pronounced upon the Israelites, that upon their disobedience, they should plant vineyards and dress them, but they could neither drink of the wine, nor eat the grapes, for the worms should eat them. (Deut. xxviii. 39.) It seems that there is a peculiar sort of worms that infest the vines, called by the Latins *Volvox* and *Convolvulus*, because it wraps and rolls itself up in the buds, and eats the grapes up, when they advance towards ripeness, as the Roman authors explain it.²

Besides other fruits that were common in Judæa, as dates, figs, cucumbers³, pomegranates, they had regular plantations of *olives*, which were a very antient and profitable object of agriculture. So early as the time of Noah (Gen. viii. 11.) the branches of the olive tree were, and since that time have been among all nations, the symbol of peace and prosperity. Oil is first mentioned in Gen. xxviii. 18. and Job xxiv. 11.; which proves the great antiquity of the cultivation of this tree. Olives, in Palestine, are of the best growth, and afford the finest oil; whence that country is often extolled in the Scriptures on account of this tree, and especially in opposition to Egypt, which is destitute of good olives. (Numb. xviii. 12. Deut. vii. 13. xi. 14. xii. 17. xviii. 4.) The olive delights in a barren, sandy, dry, and mountainous soil: and its multiplied branches (which are very agreeable to the eye as they remain green throughout the winter) have caused it to be represented as the symbol of a numerous progeny,—a blessing which was ascribed to the peculiar favour of God. (Psal. lli. 8. cxxviii. 3. Jer. xi. 16. Hos. xiv. 6.) The oil, extracted from it by a press, enabled the Jews to carry on an extensive commerce with the Tyrians (Ezek. xxvii. 17. compared with 1 Kings v. 11.): they also sent presents of oil to the kings of

¹ Investigator, No. IV. pp. 307—309. — The pleasing and instructive Essay on the Agriculture of the Israelites (by the Rev. James Plumptre), in the first, third, and fourth numbers of this journal, contains the fullest account of this interesting subject extant in the English language.

² Bochart. Hieroz. p. 3. l. 4. c. 27.

³ On the cultivation of this valuable article of food in the East, Mr. Jowett has communicated the following interesting particulars. During his voyage to Upper Egypt, in February 1819, he says, “We observed the people making holes in the sandy soil on the side of the river. Into these holes they put a small quantity of pigeons’ dung and feathers, with the seed of melons or cucumbers. The value of this manure is alluded to in 2 Kings vi. 25. The produce of this toil I had an opportunity of seeing, in due season; that is, the following month of June. Extensive fields of ripe melons and cucumbers then adorned the sides of the river. They grew in such abundance, that the sailors freely helped themselves. Some guard, however, is placed upon them. Occasionally, but at long and desolate intervals, we may observe a little hut made of reeds, just capable of containing one man; being, in fact, little more than a fence against a north wind. In these I have observed, sometimes, a poor old man, perhaps lame, feebly protecting the property. It exactly illustrates Isaiah i. 8. *And the daughter of Zion is left . . . as a lodge in a garden of cucumbers.* The abundance of these most necessary vegetables brings to mind the murmurs of the Israelites; Numbers xi. 5, 6. *We remember . . . the cucumbers, and the melons, and the leeks, and the onions, and the garlick; but now our soul is dried away.*” Jowett’s *Researches in the Mediterranean*, &c. p. 127.

Egypt. (Hos. xii. 1.) The berries of the olive tree were sometimes plucked or carefully shaken off by the hand before they were ripe. (Isa. xvii. 6. xxiv. 13. Deut. xxiv. 20.) It appears from Micah v. 15. that the presses for extracting the oil were worked with the feet; the best and purest oil, in Exod. xxvii. 20 termed *pure oil-olive beaten*, was that obtained by only beating and squeezing the olives, without subjecting them to the press.

Among the judgments with which God threatened the Israelites for their sins, it was denounced, that though they had olive trees through all their coasts, yet they should not anoint themselves with the oil, for the olive should cast her fruit (Deut. xxviii. 40.); being blasted (as the Jerusalem Targum explains it) in the very blossom, the buds should drop off for want of rain, or the fruit should be eaten with worms. Maimonides observes¹, that the idolaters in those countries pretended by certain magical arts to preserve all manner of fruit, so that the worms should not gnaw the vines, nor either buds or fruits fall from the trees (as he relates their words out of one of their books): in order therefore that he might deter the Israelites from all idolatrous practices, Moses pronounces that they should draw upon themselves those very punishments, which they endeavoured by such means to avoid.

The antient Hebrews were very fond of *Gardens*, which are frequently mentioned in the sacred writings, and derive their appellations from the prevalence of certain trees; as the *garden of nuts* and of *pomegranates*. (Sol. Song vi. 11. iv. 13.) The modern inhabitants of the East take equal delight in gardens with the antient Hebrews, on account of the refreshing shade and delicious fruits which they afford, and also because the air is cooled by the waters of which their gardens are never allowed to be destitute. (1 Kings xxi. 2. 2 Kings xxv. 4. Eccles. ii. 5, 6. John xviii. 1. xix. 41.) The Jews were greatly attached to gardens, as places of burial: hence they frequently built sepulchres in them. (2 Kings xxi. 18. Mark xv. 46.) A pleasant region is called a *garden of the Lord*, or of *God*, that is, a region extremely pleasant. See examples in Gen. xiii. 10. Isa. li. 3. and Ezek. xxxi. 8.

SECTION II.

OF THE ARTS OF THE HEBREWS.

I. *Origin of the Arts.* — *State of them from the Deluge to the time of Moses.* — II. *State of the Arts from the time of Moses until the Captivity.* — III. *State of the Arts after the Captivity.* — IV. *Account of some of the Arts practised by the Jews.* — *Writing;* — *Materials used*

for this purpose; — Letters; — Form of Books. — V. Poetry. — VI. Music and Musical Instruments. — VII. Dancing.

THE arts, which are now brought to such an admirable state of perfection, it is universally allowed, must have originated partly in necessity and partly in accident. At first they must have been very imperfect and very limited; but the inquisitive and active mind of man, seconded by his wants, soon secured to them a greater extent, and fewer imperfections. Accordingly, in the fourth generation after the creation of man, we find mention made of artificers in brass and iron, and also of musical instruments. (Gen. iv. 21, 22.) Those communities, which, from local or other causes, could not flourish by means of agriculture, would necessarily direct their attention to the encouragement and improvement of the arts. These, consequently, advanced with great rapidity, and were carried to a high pitch so far back as the time of Noah; as we may learn from the very large vessel built under his direction, the construction of which shews that they must have been well acquainted with some at least of the mechanical arts. They had also, without doubt, seen the operations of artificers in other ways besides that of building, and after the deluge imitated their works as well as they could. Hence it is, that shortly after that event, we find mention made of utensils, ornaments, and many other things which imply a knowledge of the arts. Compare Gen. ix. 21. xi. 1—9. xii. 7, 8. xiv. 1—16. xvii. 10. xviii. 4—6. xix. 32. xxxi. 19. 27. 34.

II. Egypt in the early age of the world excelled all other nations in a knowledge of the arts. The Hebrews, in consequence of remaining four hundred years with the Egyptians, must have become initiated to a considerable degree into that knowledge, which their masters possessed. Hence we find among them men, who were sufficiently skilful and informed to frame, erect, and ornament the tabernacle. Moses, it is true, did not enact any special laws in favour of the *arts*, nor did he interdict them or lessen them in the estimation of the people; on the contrary, he speaks in the praise of artificers. (Exod. xxxv. 30—35. xxxvi. 1. et seq. xxxviii. 22, 23. &c.) The grand object of Moses in a temporal point of view, was to promote agriculture, and he thought it best, as was done in other nations, to leave the arts to the ingenuity and industry of the people.

Soon after the death of Joshua, a place was expressly allotted by Joab, of the tribe of Judah, to artificers: for in the genealogy of the tribe of Judah, delivered in 1 Chron. iv. 14., we read of a place called the *Valley of Craftsmen*, and (ver. 21, 23.) of a family of workmen of fine linen, and another of potters: and when Jerusalem was taken by Nebuchadnezzar, the enemy carried away all the craftsmen and smiths. (2 Kings xxiv. 14.) But as a proof that their skill in manufactures, and trade therein, could not be very extensive, we find that the prophet Ezekiel (chap. xxvii.) in describing the affluence of the goods which came to Tyre, makes mention of nothing brought thither from Judaea, except wheat, oil, grapes, and balm,

which were all the natural product of their ground. It appears that the mistress of the family usually made the clothing for her husband, her children, and herself, and also for sale. (Exod. xxxv. 2; 1 Sam. ii. 19. Prov. xxxi. 18—24. Acts ix. 39.) Employment consequently, as far as the arts were concerned, was limited chiefly to those who engaged in the more difficult performances; for instance, those who built chariots, hewed stones, sculptured idols or made them of metal, or who made instruments of gold, silver, and brass, and vessels of clay, and the like. (See Judg. xvii. 4. Isa. xxix. 16. xxx. 14. Jer. xxviii. 13.) Artificers among the Hebrews were not, as among the Greeks and Romans, servants and slaves, but men of some rank and wealth: and as luxury and riches increased, they became very numerous. (Jer. xxiv. 1. xxix. 2. 2 Kings xxiv. 14.) Building and architecture, however, did not attain much perfection prior to the reign of the accomplished Solomon. We read, indeed, before the Israelites came into the land of Canaan, that Bezaleel and Aholiab (who were employed in the construction of the tabernacle) excelled in all manner of workmanship (Exod. xxxv. 30—35.), but we are there told, that they had their skill by inspiration from God, and it does not appear that they had any successors; for in the days of Solomon, when they were at rest from all their enemies, and were perfectly at liberty to follow out improvements of every kind, yet they had no professed artists that could undertake the work of the temple; so that Solomon was obliged to send to Hiram king of Tyre for a skilful artist (2 Chron. ii. 7.,) by whose direction the model of the temple and all the curious furniture of it was both designed and finished. But after the Jews were under the influence or power of the Romans, there is no doubt that a better taste prevailed among them. Herod, at least, must have employed some architects of distinguished abilities to repair and beautify the temple, and render it the superb structure which the description of Josephus shews that it must have been. From the frequent mention made in sacred history, of numerous instruments and of various operations in metals, we are authorised to infer, as well as from other sources, that a considerable number of the arts was known and practised among them.

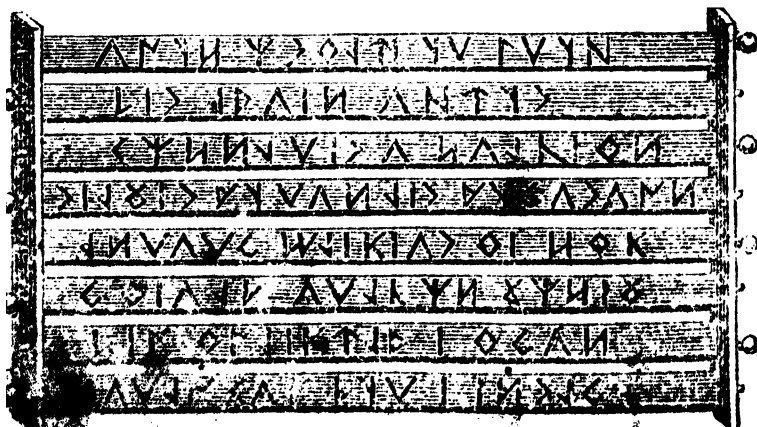
III. During the captivity many Hebrews, (most commonly those to whom a barren tract of the soil had been assigned,) applied themselves to the arts and merchandise. Subsequently, when they were scattered abroad among different nations, a knowledge of the arts became so popular, that the Talmudists taught, that all parents ought to teach their children some art or handicraft. They indeed mention many learned men of their nation, who practised some kind of manual labour, or as we should say, followed some trade. Accordingly, we find in the New Testament, that Joseph the husband of Mary was a carpenter, and that he was assisted by no less a personage than our Saviour in his labours. (Matt. xiii. 55. Mark vi. 3.) Simon is mentioned as a tanner in the city of Joppa. (Acts ix. 43. x. 32.) Alexander, a learned Jew, was a copper-smith (2 Tim. iv. 14.); Paul and Aquila were tent-makers, σκηνοποιοί. Not only the

Greeks, but the Jews also, esteemed certain trades *infamous*. At any rate the Rabbins reckoned the drivers of asses and camels, barbers, sailors, shepherds, and innkeepers, in the same class with robbers. Those Ephesians and Cretans, who were lovers of gain, αἰσχροκερδεῖς (1 Tim. iii. 8. Tit. i. 7.), were men, as we may learn from antient writers, who were determined to get money in however base a manner. In the apostolic age, the more eminent Greek tradesmen were united into a society. (Acts xix. 25.)

IV. We read nothing of the art of writing in Scripture, before the copy of the law was given by God to Moses, which was *written* (that is, engraven, *on two tables of stone by the finger of God* (Exod. xxxi. 18.), and this is called the *writing of God*. (Exod xxxii. 16.) It is therefore probable that God himself was the first who taught letters to Moses, who communicated the knowledge of them to the Israelites, and they to the other eastern nations.¹ Engraving or sculpture seems therefore to be the most antient way of writing, of which we have another very early instance in Exod. xxxix. 30., where we are told that "holiness to the Lord," was written on a golden plate, and worn on the high priest's head. And we find that the names of the twelve tribes were commanded to be written on twelve rods. (Numb. xvii. 2.) To this mode of writing there is an allusion in Ezek. xxxvii. 16.² In later times the Jews made use of broad rushes or flags for writing on, which grew in great abundance in

¹ We know that the inhabitants of Yemen or the Southern Arabia were accustomed in the remotest ages, to inscribe their laws and wise sayings upon stone. See Meidanii Proverb. Arab. p. 45. (cited in Burder's Oriental Literature, vol. i. p. 198.) and Dr. A. Clarke's Commentary, on Exod. xxxii. 15.

² Writing on billets or sticks was practised by the Greeks. Plutarch, in his Life of Solon (Vitæ, tom. i. p. 20. ed. Bryan.), and Aulus Gellius (Noct. Att. lib. ii. c. 12.), inform us that the very antient laws of that philosopher, preserved at Athens, were inscribed on tablets of wood called *Arænes*. In later times a similar mode of writing was practised by the aboriginal Britons, who cut their letters upon sticks, which were most commonly squared, and sometimes formed into three sides; consequently a single stick contained either four or three lines. (See Ezek. xxxvii. 16.) The squares were used for general subjects, and for stanzas of four lines in poetry; the triliteral ones were adapted to triads, and for a peculiar kind of antient metre, called *Triban* or triplet, and *Englyn Milwr*, or the warrior's verse. Several sticks with writing upon them were put together, forming a kind of frame, which was called *Peithner* or Elucidator; and was so conducted that each stick might be turned for the facility of reading, the end of each running out alternately on both sides of the frame. The subjoined cut



Egypt, and are noticed by the prophet Isaiah when foretelling the confusion of that country. (Isa. xix. 6, 7.) Writing on palm and other leaves is still practised in the East.¹

is an engraved specimen of antient British writing, copied from Dr. Fry's elegant work intituled *Pantographia*. (p. 307.) The following is a literal reading in the modern orthography of Wales, with a correct translation: —

“ Aryv y doeth yw pwyll :
 Bid ezain alltud :
 Cyvnewid a haelion :
 Diengid rhywan eid rhygadarn :
 Enwawg meiciad o' i voc :
 Goiaen awel yn nghyving :
 Hir oreistez i ogan :
 Llauer car byw i Indeg.”

TRANSLATION.

“ The weapon of the wise is reason :
 Let the exile be moving :
 Commerce with generous ones :
 Let the very feeble run away ; let the very powerful proceed :
 The swineherd is proud of his swine :
 A gale is almost ice in a narrow place :
 Long penance to slander :
 The frail Indeg has many living relations.”

A continuation of this mode of writing may be found in the *Runic* or *Clog* (a corruption of *Log*) Almanacks, which prevailed among the northern nations of Europe so late even as the sixteenth century. See a description and engraving of one in Dr. Plot's *Natural History of Staffordshire*, pp. 418—422.

¹ In the Sloanian Library, there are upwards of twenty manuscripts written on leaves, written in the Sanskrit, Burman, Peguan, Ceylonese and other languages. (Ayscough's *Catalogue of the Sloane Library*, pp. 904—906.) In Tanjore and other parts of India, the palmyra leaf is used. (Dr. C. Buchanan's “*Christian Researches in Asia*,” pp. 70, 71. 8vo. edit.) The common books of the Burmans, like those of the Hindoos, particularly of such as inhabit the southern parts of India, are composed of the palmyra leaf, on which the letters are engraved with a stylus. (Symes's *Account of an Embassy to Ava*, vol. ii. p. 409. 8vo.) In their more elegant books, the Burmans write on sheets of ivory, or on very fine white palmyra leaves : the ivory is stained black, and the margins are ornamented with gilding, while the characters are enamelled or gilt. On the palmyra leaves the characters are in general of black enamel : and the ends of the leaves and margins are painted with flowers in various bright colours. A hole through both ends of each leaf serves to connect the whole into a volume by means of two strings, which also pass through the two wooden boards that serve for binding. In the finer binding of these kinds of books, the boards are lacquered ; the edges of the leaves are cut smooth and gilt, and the title is written on the upper board. The two boards are by a knot or jewel secured at a little distance from the boards, so as to prevent the book from falling to pieces, but sufficiently distant to admit of the upper leaves being turned back, while the lower ones are read. The more elegant books are in general wrapped up in silk cloth, and bound round by a garter, in which the natives ingeniously contrive to weave the title of the book. (Asiatic Researches, vol. iv. p. 306. 8vo. edit.) The Ceylonese sometimes make use of the palm leaf, but generally prefer that of the *Talipot-tree*, on account of its superior breadth and thickness. From these leaves, which are of immense size, they cut out slips from a foot to a foot and a half long, and about two inches broad. These slips being smoothed and all excrescences pared off with the knife, they are ready for use without any other preparation : a fine-pointed steel pen, like a bodkin, and set in a wooden or ivory handle ornamented according to the owner's taste, is employed to write or rather to engrave their characters on these talipot slips, which are very thick and tough. In order to render the characters more visible and distinct, they rub them over with oil mixed with pulverised charcoal, which process also renders them so permanent, that they never can be effaced. When one slip is insufficient to contain all that they intend to write on any particular subject, the Ceylonese string several together by passing a piece of twine through them, and attach them to a board in the same way as we file newspapers. (Percival's *Account of the*

The other eastern nations made use chiefly of parchment, being the thin skins of animals carefully dressed. The best was made at Pergamos, whence it was called *Charta Pergamena*. It is probable that the Jews learned the use of it from them, and that this is what is meant by a *roll* (Ezra vi. 2.), and a *roll of a book* (Jer. xxxvi. 2.), and a *scroll rolled together* (Isa. xxxiv. 4.): for it could not be thin and weak paper, but parchment which is of some consistency, that was capable of being thus rolled up. St. Paul is the only person who makes express mention of parchment. (2 Tim. iv. 13.) In Job xix. 24. and in Jer. xvii. 1. there is mention made of pens of iron, with which they probably made the letters, when they engraved on lead¹, stone², or other hard substances: but for softer materials they, in all probability, made use of quills or reeds; for we are told of some in the tribe of Zebulun who *handled the pen of the writer*. (Judg. v. 14.) David alludes to the *pen of a ready writer* (Psal. xlv. 1.), and Baruch, as we are told, wrote the words of Jeremiah with ink in a book. (Jer. xxxvi. 18.) It is highly probable that several of the prophets wrote upon tablets of wood, or some similar substance. (Compare Isa. xxx. 8. and Habakkuk ii. 2.) Such tablets, it is well known, were in use long before the time of Homer (who lived about one hundred and fifty years before the prophet Isaiah). Zecharias, the father of John the Baptist, when required to name his son, *said for a writing-tablet* (Luke i. 63.); and such tablets were also in use among the Romans and other

Island of Ceylon, p. 205.) The Brahmī manuscripts, in the Telīnga language, sent to Oxford from Fort St. George, are written on the leaves of the *Anpama*, or *Palma Malabarica*. In the Maldive Islands, the natives are said to write on the leaves of the *Macaricquean*, which are a fathom and a half (*vine-foot*) long, and about a foot broad; and in other parts of the East Indies, the leaves of the plantain tree are employed for the same purpose.

¹ The eminent antiquary, Montfaucon, informs us that in 1699 he bought at Rome a book wholly composed of lead, about four inches in length, by three inches in width, and containing Egyptian Gnostic figures and unintelligible writing. Not only the two pieces which formed the cover, but also all the leaves, (six in number, the stick inserted into the rings which held the leaves together, the hinges, and the nails were all of lead, without exception. *Antiquité Expliquée*, tom. ii. p. 378. It is not known what has become of this curious article.

² "The most ancient people, before the invention of books and before the use of sculpture upon stones and other small fragments, represented things great and noble upon entire rocks and mountains: the custom was not laid aside for many ages. Semiramis, to perpetuate her memory, is reported to have cut a whole rock into the shape of herself. Hannibal, long after the invention of books, engraved characters upon the Alpine rocks, as a testimony of his passage over them; which characters were remaining about two centuries ago, according to Pausanias. It appears particularly to have been the custom of the northern nations, from that remarkable inscription mentioned by Saxo, and several ages after him delineated and published by Olaus Wormius. It was inscribed by Harold Hyldeland, to the memory of his father, and was cut out in the side of a rock, in Runic characters, each letter of the inscription being a quarter of an ell long, and the length of the whole thirty-four ells. Wise's *Letter to Dr. Mead*, p. 25. The custom was eastern as well as northern, as appears from that remarkable instance which occurs in Captain Hamilton's *Account of the East Indies, Voyage*, vol. ii. p. 241. The author, after giving a short history of the successful attack which the Dutch made upon the island of Amoy in China, A. D. 1643, adds, "This history is written in large China characters on the face of a smooth rock, that faces the entrance of the harbour, and may be fairly seen as we pass entered into the harbour." Burder's *Oriental Literature*, vol. i. p. 535.

antient nations, and were not finally disused until the fourteenth century of the Christian æra. They were in general covered with wax, and the writing was executed with styles or pens, made of gold, silver, brass, iron, copper, ivory or bone, which at one end were pointed for the purpose of inscribing the letters, and smooth at the other extremity for the purpose of erasing.¹ In Barbary the children, who are sent to school, write on a smooth thin board slightly daubed over with whiting, which may be wiped off or renewed at pleasure. The Copts, who are employed by the great men of Egypt in keeping their accounts, &c., make use of a kind of pasteboard, from which the writing is occasionally wiped off with a wet sponge. To this mode of writing there is an allusion in Neh. xiii. 14., and especially in Numb. v. 23.; where, in the case of the woman suspected of adultery who was to take an oath of cursing, it is said that *the priest shall write the curses in a book, and blot them out with the bitter water*. It appears that these maledictions were written with a kind of ink prepared for the purpose, without any calx of iron or other material that could make a permanent dye; and were then washed off the parchment into the water which the woman was obliged to drink: so that she drank the *very words* of the execration. The ink used in the East is almost all of this kind; a wet sponge will completely obliterate the finest of their writings.²

Epistles or Letters, which are included under the same Hebrew word with Books (viz. ספר, *sephen*), are very rarely mentioned in the earlier ages of antiquity. The first notice of an epistle in the sacred writings occurs in 2 Sam. xi. 14.: but afterwards they are more frequently mentioned. In the East, letters are to this day commonly sent unsealed: but, when they are sent to persons of distinction, they are placed in a valuable purse, which is tied, closed over with clay or wax, and then stamped with a signet. The same practice obtained in antient times. See Isa. viii. 6. xxix. 11. (marginal rendering) Neh. vi. 5. Job xxxviii. 11. The book which was shewn to the apostle John (Rev. v. 1. vi. 1, 2, &c.) was sealed with *seven seals*; which unusual number seems to have been affixed, in order to intimate the great importance and secrecy of the matters therein contained. The most antient epistles begin and end without either salutation or farewell; but under the Persian monarchy it was very prolix. It is given in an abridged form in Ezra iv. 7—10. and v. 7. The apostles, in their epistles, used the salutation customary among the Greeks, but they omitted the usual farewell (*χαίρειν*) at the close, and adopted a benediction more conformable to the spirit of the Gospel of Christ. When Paul dictated his letters (as he most frequently did), he wrote the benediction at the close, with his own hand. See an instance in 2 Thess. iii. 17.

¹ On this subject and on the substances generally employed for writing, both in antient and modern times, see an Introduction to the Study of Bibliography, by the author of this work, vol. i. pp. 31—72. •

² Harmer's *Observations*, vol. iii. p. 127. Dr. A. Clarke on Numb. v. 23.

Books being written on parchment and similar flexible materials, were rolled round a stick; and, if they were very long, round two, from the two extremities. The reader unrolled the book to the place which he wanted, ἀναπτύξας το βιβλίον, and rolled it up again, when he had read it, πτυξας το βιβλίον (Luke iv. 17—20.); whence the name כְּלִי, *a volume*, or thing rolled up. (Ps. xl. 7. Isa. xxxiv. 4. Ezek. ii. 9. 2 Kings xix. 14. Ezra vi. 2.) The leaves thus rolled round the stick, and bound with a string, could be easily sealed. (Isa. xxix. 11. Dan. xii. 4. Rev. v. 1. vi. 7.) Those books which were inscribed on tablets of wood, lead, brass, or ivory, were connected together by rings at the back, through which a rod was passed to carry them by. In Palestine, when persons are reading, privately, in a book, “they usually go on, reading aloud with a kind of singing voice, moving their heads and bodies in time, and making a monotonous cadence at regular intervals,—thus giving emphasis; although not such an emphasis, pliant to the sense, as would please an English ear. Very often they seem to read without perceiving the sense; and to be pleased with themselves, merely because they can go through the mechanical act of reading in any way.”—This practice may enable us to “understand how it was that Philip should hear at what passage in Isaiah the Ethiopian Eunuch was reading, before he was invited to come up and sit with him in the chariot. (Acts viii. 30, 31.) The Eunuch, though probably reading to himself, and not particularly designing to be heard by his attendants, would read loud enough to be understood by a person at some distance.”¹

V. *Poetry* had its origin in the first ages of the world, when undisciplined feelings and a lively imagination naturally supplied strong expressions, gave an expressive modulation to the voice, and motion to the limbs. Hence poetry, music, and dancing, were in all probability contemporaneous in their origin. As the nature and genius of the poetry of the Hebrews has already been discussed at some length in the second volume of this work, it is sufficient here to remark, that the effusions of the inspired Hebrew muse infinitely surpass in grandeur, sublimity, beauty, and pathos, all the most celebrated productions of Greece and Rome. Not to repeat unnecessarily the observations already offered on this topic, we may here briefly remark, that the eucharistic song of Moses, composed on the deliverance of the Israelites and their miraculous passage of the Red Sea (Exod. xv. 1—19.), is an admirable hymn, full of strong and lively images. The song of Deborah and Barak (Judg. v.), and that of Hannah the mother of Samuel (1 Sam. ii. 1.), have many excellent flights, and some noble and sublime raptures. David's lamentation on the death of Saul and Jonathan (2 Sam. i. 19.) is an incomparable elegy. The gratulatory hymn (Isa. xii.) and Hezekiah's song of praise (Isa. xxviii.) are worthy of every one's attention. The prayer of Habakkuk (iii.) contains a sublime

description of the divine majesty. Besides these single hymns we have the book of Psalms, Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, Canticles, and Lamentations; all of which are composed by different poets, according to the usage of those times. The Psalms are a great storehouse of heavenly devotion, full of affecting and sublime thoughts, and with a variety of expressions, admirably calculated to excite a thankful remembrance of God's mercies, and for moving the passions of joy and grief, indignation and hatred. They consist mostly of pious and affectionate prayers, holy meditations, and exalted strains of praise and thanksgiving. The allusions are beautiful, the expressions tender and moving, and the piety of the authors is singularly remarkable. The Proverbs of Solomon are a divine collection of many admirable sentences of morality, wonderfully adapted to instruct us in our duty to God and man. The book of Ecclesiastes teaches us, in a very lively manner, the insufficiency of all earthly enjoyments to make a man happy. The Canticles or Song of Solomon, under the parable of a man's affection to his spouse, in very tender yet elegant expressions, shews us the ardent love of Christ to his church and people; and the Lamentations of Jeremiah contain a very mournful account of the state of Jerusalem, as destroyed by the Chaldeans.

VI. *Music* is coeval with poetry. Musical instruments were invented by Jubal. (Gen. iv. 21.) This art was cultivated with great ardour by the Hebrews, who did not confine it to sacred purposes, but introduced it upon all special and solemn occasions, such as entertaining their friends, public festivals, and the like; thus Laban tells Jacob that if he had known of his leaving him, *he would have sent him away with mirth and with songs, with tabret and with harp.* (Gen. xxxi. 27.) Isaiah says, *that the harp and the viol, the tabret and pipe, are in their feasts* (Isa. v. 12.); and, to express the cessation of these feasts, he says, *the mirth of tabrets ceaseth, the joy of the harp ceaseth.* (Isa. xxiv. 8.) It was also the custom at the coronation of kings. (2 Chron. xxiii. 13.) And it was the usual manner of expressing their mirth upon their receiving good tidings of victory, and upon the triumphal returns of their generals, as may be seen in Judg. xi. 34. and 1 Sam. xviii. 6. That music and dancing were used among the Jews at their feasts in latter ages, may be inferred from the parable of the prodigal son. (Luke xv. 25.) Besides their sacred music, the Hebrew monarchs had their private music. Asaph was master of David's royal band of musicians. It appears that in the temple-service female musicians were admitted, as well as males, and that in general they were the daughters of Levites. Heman had fourteen sons and three daughters, who were skilled in music: and Ezra, when enumerating those who returned with him from the Babylonish captivity, reckons two hundred singing men and singing women. The Chaldee paraphrast on Eccles. ii. 8., where Solomon says that he had *men singers and women singers*, understands it of singing women of the temple.

In the tabernacle and the temple, the Levites (both men and

women) were the lawful musicians; but on other occasions the Jews were at liberty to use any musical instruments, with the exception of the silver trumpets which were to be sounded only by the priests, on certain solemn and public occasions. (Numb. x. 1—10.) In order to give the best effect to the music of the tabernacle, David divided the four thousand Levites into twenty-four classes, who sang psalms and accompanied them with music. Over each class was placed a leader; and they performed the duties which devolved upon them, each class a week at a time in succession. The classes collectively, as a united body, were superintended by three directors, among whom Asaph, Heman, and Jeduthun, are particularly mentioned. (1 Chron. xvi. 5. xxiii. 5. xxv. 1—31. and 2 Chron. v. 12, 13.) This arrangement was subsequently continued by Solomon after the erection of the temple, and continued till the overthrow of Jerusalem. Sometimes, indeed, it was interrupted during the reign of the idolatrous kings, but was restored by their pious successors (2 Chron. v. 12—14. xxix. 27. xxxv. 15.): and it was continued after the captivity, as appears from Ezra iii. 10. Neh. xii. 45—47. 1 Macc. iv. 54. xiii. 51.

The following are the principal musical instruments mentioned in the sacred writings.¹

1. *Pulsatile Instruments.* — These were three in number, viz. The tabret, the cymbal, and the *sistrum*.

(1.) The *Tabret* or *Tabar*, תַּבְרֵת (THER), was composed of a circular hoop, either of wood or brass, which was covered with a piece of skin tensely drawn and hung round with small bells. It was held in the left hand and beaten to notes of music with the right: the ladies in the East to this day dance to the sound of this instrument. The earliest notice of the tabret occurs in Gen. xxxi. 27.

(2.) The *Cymbal*, צִלְצֵל (TSELTEL), Psal. cl. 5. consisted of two large and broad plates of brass, of a convex form; which being struck against each other, made a hollow ringing sound.² They form, in our days, a part of every military band.

(3.) The *Sistrum*, מְנַאֲחוֹמִי (MENACHOMI), which in our version of 2 Sam. vi. 5. is mis-rendered *cornets*, was a rod of iron bent into an oval or oblong shape, or square at two corners and curved at the others, and furnished with a number of moveable rings; so that, when shaken or struck with another rod of iron, it emitted the sound desired.

2. *Wind Instruments.* — Six of these are mentioned in the Scriptures, viz. The organ, the flute and hautboy, dulcimer, horn, and trumpet:

(1.) The *Organ*, עֹגֶב (OGEB), is frequently mentioned in the Old Testament, and its invention is ascribed to Jubal in Gen. iv. 21;

¹ For some remarks on the titles of certain *Psalms*, which are supposed to have been derived either from musical instruments or the tunes to which they were sung, see Vol. IV. § 112.

² Josephus, *Ant. Jud.* lib. vii. c. 12.

but it cannot have been like our modern organs. It is supposed to have been a kind of flute, at first composed of one or two, but afterwards of about seven pipes, made of reeds of unequal length and thickness, which were joined together. It corresponded most nearly to the *συριγξ* or pipe of Pan among the Greeks.

(2.) (3.) The *חליל* (*CHALIL*), and the *נעב* (*NEKEB*), which our translators have rendered *pipes*, are supposed to have been the flute and hautboy.

(4.) The *סמבון* (*SAMPUNJAH*), or dulcimer (*Dan. iii. 5.*), was a wind instrument made of reeds; by the Syrians called *Sambonjah*, by the Greeks *Σαμβων*, and by the Italians *Sampogna*.

(5.) The *Horn* or *Crooked Trumpet* was a very antient instrument, made of the horns of oxen cut off at the smaller extremity. In progress of time ram's horns were used for the same purpose. It was chiefly used in war.

(6.) The form of the straight *Trumpet* is well known: it was used by the priests (*Numb. x. 8. 1 Chron. xv. 24.*) both on extraordinary occasions (*Numb. x. 10.*), and also in the daily service of the temple. (*2 Chron. vii. 6. xxix. 26.*) In time of peace, when the people or the rulers were to be convened together, this trumpet was blown softly: but when the camps were to move forward, or the people were to march to war, it was sounded with a deeper note.

3. *Stringed Instruments.* — These were the harp and the psaltery.

(1.) The *Harp* *קִנּוּר* (*KINOUR*) seems to have resembled that in modern use: it was the most antient of all musical instruments. (*Gen. iv. 21.*) It had ten strings, and was played by David with the hand (*1 Sam. xvi. 23.*): but Josephus¹ says, that it was played upon or struck with a plectrum.

(2.) The *Psalttery* *נֶבֶל* (*NEBEL*) obtained its name from its resemblance to a bottle or flaggon: it is first mentioned in the Psalms of David, and the invention of it is ascribed to the Phœnicians. In *Psal. xxxiii. 2.* and *cxlii. 9.* it is called a *ten-stringed instrument*, but in *Psal. xlii. 3.* it is distinguished from the latter. Josephus² says, that it had twelve sounds (or strings), and was struck or played upon by the fingers.

Effects the most astonishing are attributed in the Scriptures to the Hebrew music, of the nature of which we know but very little. Several examples are recorded, in the sacred history, of the power and charms of music to sweeten the temper, to compose and allay the passions of the mind, to revive the drooping spirits, and to dissipate melancholy. It had this effect on Saul, when David played to him on his harp. (*1 Sam. xvi. 16. 23.*) And when Elisha was desired by Jehoshaphat to tell him what his success against the king

¹ Ant. Jud. lib. vii. c. 12.

² Ibid.

³ Calmet, Dissertation sur les Instrumens de Musique des Hebreux, prefixed to his Commentary on the Psalms. *Juden Archaeologia Biblica*, pp. 145—152. Brown's Antiquities of the Jews, vol. i. pp. 315—321.

of Moab would be, the prophet required a minstrel to be brought unto him; and when he played, it is said that the *hand of the Lord came upon him* (2 Kings iii. 15.), not that the gift of prophecy was the natural effect of music, but the meaning is, that music disposed the organs, the humours, and in short the whole mind and spirit of the prophet, to receive these supernatural impressions.

VII. *Dancing* was an ordinary concomitant of music among the Jews. Sometimes it was used on a religious account: thus Miriam with her women glorified God (after the deliverance from the Egyptians), in dances as well as songs (Exod. xv. 20.), and David danced after the ark. (2 Sam. vi. 16.) It was a thing common at the Jewish feasts (Judg. xxi. 19. 21.) and in public triumphs (Judg. xi. 34.), and at all seasons of mirth and rejoicing. (Psal. xxx. 11. Jer. xxxi. 4. 13. Luke xv. 25.) The idolatrous Jews made it a part of their worship which they paid to the golden calf. (Exod. xxxii. 19.) The Amalekites danced after their victory at Ziklag (1 Sam. xxx. 16.), and Job makes it part of the character of the prosperous wicked (that is, of those who, placing all their happiness in the enjoyments of sense, forget God and religion), that their children dance. (Job xxi. 11.) The dancing of the profligate Herodias's daughter pleased Herod so highly, that he promised to give her whatever she asked, and accordingly, at her desire, and in compliment to her, he commanded John the Baptist to be beheaded in prison. (Matt. xiv. 6—8.)

SECTION III.

ON THE SCIENCES OF THE HEBREWS.¹

I. *Origin of the Sciences.*—II. *History, Genealogy, and Chronology.*—III. *Arithmetic, Mathematics, Astronomy, and Astrology.*—IV. *Surveying.*—V. *Mechanic Arts.*—VI. *Geography.*—VII. *Physics, Natural History, and Philosophy.*—VIII. *Medicine.*—IX. *Notice of some particular Diseases mentioned in the Scriptures, viz. 1. Disease of the Philistines; — 2. Of King Saul; — 3. Of King Jehoram; — 4. Of King Hezekiah; — 5. Of Nebuchadnezzar; — 6. Palsy; — 7. The Disease of Job; — 8. Issue of Blood; — 9. Blindness; — 10. Demoniacal Possessions.*

I. **WHEN** the arts had been reduced by long practice and meditation to fixed and definite rules, they were succeeded by the sciences; which in fact are nothing more than the reduction, into a more regular and philosophic form, of those rules and theories, which have been ascertained and approved by inquiry and practice. We are able to discover the beginnings, the indistinct vestiges of the

¹ This section is taken principally from Mr. Upham's Translation of Jahn's *Archæologia Biblica* (Andover, Massachusetts, 1823), part i. chapters 6 and 12. In the accounts of diseases, Dr. Mead's *Medica Sacra* has chiefly been followed.

sciences in very remote periods; and in some nations more strikingly than in others. The Egyptians and Babylonians excelled in scientific knowledge all others. The Arabians also are favourably mentioned in this respect. (1 Kings iv. 30.; also the Edomites, Jer. xlix. 7.) The Hebrews became renowned for their intellectual culture in the time of David, and especially, of Solomon, who is said to have surpassed all others in wisdom; a circumstance, which was the ground of the many visits, which were paid to him by distinguished foreigners. (1 Kings v. 9—12.) His example, which was truly an illustrious one, was beyond question imitated by other kings. The literature of the Hebrews was limited chiefly to ethics, religion, the history of their nation, and natural history; on which last subject Solomon wrote many treatises, no longer extant. The Hebrews made but little progress in science and literature after the time of Solomon. During their captivity, it is true, they acquired many foreign notions, with which they had not been previously acquainted: and they, subsequently, borrowed much both of truth and of falsehood, from the philosophy of the Greeks. The author of the book of Wisdom, with some others of the Jewish writers, has made pretty good use of the Greek philosophy. It is clear, notwithstanding this, that the Jews after the captivity fell below their ancestors in respect to *History*; as the published annals of that period are not of a kindred character, with those of the primitive ages of their country.

II. That the art of *Historical Writing* was antiently much cultivated in the East, the Bible itself is an ample testimony; for it not only relates the prominent events, from the creation down to the fifth century before Christ, but speaks of many historical books, which have now perished; and also of many monuments erected in commemoration of remarkable achievements and furnished with appropriate inscriptions. These monuments are denominated by various names, as זכרון, ידעצבה. The Babylonians also, the Assyrians, the Persians, and Tyrians, had their Historical Annals. Among the Egyptians, there was a separate order, viz. the priests, one part of whose duty it was, to write the history of their country. In the primitive ages the task of composing annals fell in most nations upon the priests, but at a later period, the king had his own secretaries, whose special business it was to record the royal sayings and achievements. The Prophets among the Hebrews recorded the events of their own times, and, in the earliest periods, the Genealogists interwove many historical events with their accounts of the succession of families. Indeed, it should not be forgotten, that antient history generally partakes more of a genealogical, than a chronological character. Hence the Hebrew phrase for genealogies, תולדות, is used also for history (Gen. vi. 9. x. 1.); and hence no epoch more antient than that of Nabonassar, is any where found. In the Bible, however, this defect, in regard to a regular chronological system, is in a manner compensated by the insertion in various places of definite periods of time, and by chronological genealogies.

In giving a concise account of the genealogy of a person, the Hebrews as well as the Arabs, took the liberty to omit, according to their own pleasure, one or more generations. (Ruth iv. 18—22. Ezra vii. 1—5. Matt. i. 8.) It was considered so much of an honour, to have a name and a place in these family annals, that the Hebrews, from their first existence as a nation, had public genealogists, denominated שוטר, שוטרִים.

Not only the Hebrews, but, if we may credit Herodotus and Diodorus Siculus, the Egyptians also, assigned a certain period to a generation. According to their estimation, three generations made an hundred years. In the time of Abraham, however, when men lived to a greater age, an hundred years made a generation. This is clear from Gen. xv. 13. 16. and from the circumstance, that Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob dwelt two hundred and fifteen years in the land of Canaan, and yet there were only two generations.

III. ARITHMETIC, MATHEMATICS, ASTRONOMY, AND ASTROLOGY.

1. *Arithmetic.*—The more simple methods of arithmetical calculation are spoken of in the Pentateuch, as if they were well known. The merchants of that early period, must, for their own convenience, have been possessed of some method of operating by numbers. And that they were able to do it, to some considerable extent, may be argued from the fact, that they had separate words, viz. רבו and רבבה, for so large a number as 10,000.

2. *Mathematics.*—By this we understand Geometry, Mensurations, Navigation, &c. As far as a knowledge of them was absolutely required by the condition and employments of the people, we may well suppose, that knowledge to have actually existed; although no express mention is made of them.

3. *Astronomy.*—The interests of agriculture and navigation required some knowledge of astronomy. An evidence, that an attempt was made at a very early period, to regulate the year by the annual revolution of the sun, may be found in the fact, that the Jewish months were divided into thirty days each. (See Gen. vii. 11. viii. 4.) In Astronomy, the Egyptians, Babylonians, and Phœnicians exhibited great superiority. We are informed, there were magicians or enchanters in Egypt (Exod. vii. 11. Lev. xx. 27. xix. 31. Deut. xviii. 20.), denominated in Hebrew כַּשְׁפִּים, because they computed eclipses of the sun and moon, and pretended to the people, that they produced them by the efficacy of their own enchantments. Some of the constellations are mentioned by name in Job ix. 9. xxxviii. 31, 32. Isa. xiii. 10. Amos v. 8. 2 Kings xxiii. 5.

4. *Astrology.*—It is by no means a matter of wonder, that the Hebrews did not devote greater attention to astronomy, since the study of *astrology*, which was intimately connected with that of astronomy, and was very highly estimated among the neighbouring nations (Isa. xlvii. 9. Jer. xxvii. 9. l. 35. Dan. ii. 13. 48.), was interdicted to the Hebrews. (Deut. xviii. 10. Lev. xx. 27.) Daniel, indeed, studied the art of astrology at Babylon, but he did not prac-

tise it. (Dan. i. 20. ii. 2.) The astrologers (and those wise men mentioned in Matt. ii. 1. et seq. appear to have been such,) divided the heavens into apartments, or habitations, to each one of which apartments they assigned a ruler or president. This fact develops the origin of the word, $\beta\epsilon\epsilon\lambda\lambda\epsilon\beta\omicron\upsilon\lambda$, בֶּעַל זְבוּל or the *Lord of the (celestial) dwelling*. (Matt. x. 25. xii. 24. 27. Mark iii. 22. Luke xi. 15—19.)

IV. Measures of length are mentioned in Gen. vi. 15, 16. A knowledge of the method of measuring lands is implied in the account given Gen. xlvii. 20—27. Mention is made, in the books of Job and Joshua, of a line or rope for the purpose of taking measurements; קֵי, מִדְּבָר . It was brought by the Hebrews out of Egypt, where, according to the unanimous testimony of antiquity, *Surveying* first had its origin, and in consequence of the inundations of the Nile, was carried to the greatest height. It was here, as we may well conclude, that the Hebrews acquired so much knowledge of the principles of that science, as to enable them, with the aid of the measuring line above mentioned, to partition and set off geographically the whole land of Canaan. The weights used in weighing solid bodies (Gen. xxiii. 15, 16.), provided they were similar to each other in form, imply a knowledge of the rudiments of stereometry.

V. *The Mechanic Arts*.—No express mention is made of the mechanic arts; but that a knowledge of them, notwithstanding, existed, may be inferred from the erection of Noah's ark, and the tower of Babel; from the use of balances in the time of Abraham; also from what is said of the Egyptian chariots, in Gen. xli. 43. xlv. 19. l. 9. and Exod. xiv. 6, 7.; and from the instruments used by the Egyptians in irrigating their lands. (Deut. xi. 10.) It is implied in the mention of these, and subsequently of many other instruments, that other instruments still, not expressly named, but which were of course necessary for the formation of those which are named, were in existence.

VI. *Geography*.—Geographical notices occur so frequently in the Bible, that it is not necessary to say much on this point; but see Gen. x. 1—30. xii. 4—15. xiv. 1—16. xxviii. 2—9. xlix. 13., &c. Perhaps, however, it deserves to be repeated, that in the time of Joshua, the whole of Palestine was subjected to a geographical division. (Josh. xviii. 9.) It is evident, then, from their geographical knowledge, as well as from other circumstances already mentioned, that there must have existed among the Hebrews, the rudiments, if nothing more, of mathematical science.

VII. *Physics*, or Natural Philosophy, has secured but little attention in the East. A knowledge of the animal, vegetable and mineral kingdoms, or the science of *Natural History*, was always much more an object of interest. Solomon was an illustrious pattern of knowledge and wisdom; and his skill in this science is sufficiently indicated, when we are told that *he spake of trees, from the cedar-tree that is in Lebanon; even to the hyssop that springeth out of the*

wall: he spake also of beasts, and of fowls, and of creeping things, and of fishes. (1 Kings iv. 33.)

Traces of *Philosophy*, strictly so called, that is, the system of prevailing moral opinions, may be found in the book of Job, in the 7th, 39th, and 73d Psalms, also in the books of Proverbs and Ecclesiastes, but chiefly in the apocryphal book of Wisdom, and the writings of the son of Sirach. During the captivity, the Jews acquired many new notions, particularly from the Mehestani, and appropriated them, as occasion offered, to their own purposes. They at length became acquainted with the philosophy of the Greeks, which makes its appearance abundantly in the book of Wisdom. After the captivity, the language in which the sacred books were written, was no longer vernacular. Hence arose the need of an interpreter on the sabbatic year, a time when the whole law was read; and also on the sabbath in the synagogues, which had been recently erected, in order to make the people understand what was read. These interpreters learnt the Hebrew language at the schools. The teachers of these schools, who, for the two generations preceding the time of Christ, had maintained some acquaintance with the Greek philosophy, were not satisfied with a simple interpretation of the Hebrew idiom, as it stood, but shaped the interpretation, so as to render it conformable to their philosophy. Thus arose contentions, which gave occasion for the various sects of Pharisees, Sadducees, and Essenes. In the time of our Saviour, divisions had arisen among the Pharisees themselves. No less than eighteen nice questions, if we may believe the Jewish Rabbins, were contested, at that period, between the schools of Hillel and Shammai. One of which questions was an inquiry, "What cause was sufficient for a bill of divorce?" If the Shammai and Hillel of the Talmud are the same with the learned men mentioned in Josephus, viz. Sameas and Pollio, who flourished thirty-four years before Christ, then Shammai or Sameas is undoubtedly the same with the Simeon who is mentioned Luke ii. 25. 34. and his son Gamaliel, so celebrated in the Talmud, is the same with the Gamaliel mentioned Acts v. 34. xxii. 3.

Antiently, learned men were denominated among the Hebrews חכמים, as among the Greeks they were called σοφοί, that is, *wise men*. In the time of Christ, the common appellative for men of that description was γραμματεὺς, in the Hebrew סופר, *a scribe*. They were addressed by the honorary title of *Rabbi*, רבי, רב, that is, *great or master*. The Jews in imitation of the Greeks, had their seven wise men, who were called *Rabboni*, רבן. Gamaliel was one of the number. They called themselves the children of wisdom; expressions which correspond very nearly to the Greek φιλοσοφος. (Matt. xi. 19. Luke vii. 35.) The heads of sects were called *fathers* (Matt. xii. 27. xxiii. 1—9.), and the disciples, תלמידים, were denominated sons or children. The Jewish teachers, at least some of them, had private lecture rooms, but they also taught and disputed in synagogues, in temples, and in fact, wherever they could find an audience. The

method of these teachers was the same with that, which prevailed among the Greeks. Any disciple who chose might propose questions, upon which it was the duty of the teachers to remark and give their opinions. (Luke ii. 46.) The teachers were not invested with their functions by any formal act of the church or of the civil authority; they were self-constituted. They received no other salary than some voluntary present from the disciples, which was called an *honorary*, *τιμη*, *HONORARIUM*. (1 Tim. v. 17.) They acquired a subsistence in the main by the exercise of some art or handicraft. That they took a higher seat than their auditors, although it was probably the case, does not follow, as is sometimes supposed, from Luke ii. 46. According to the Talmudists they were bound to hold no conversation with women, and to refuse to sit at table with the lower class of people. (John iv. 27. Matt. ix. 11.) The subjects on which they taught, were numerous, commonly intricate, and of no great consequence; of which there are abundant examples in the Talmud.¹

VIII. The diseases to which the human frame is subject would naturally lead man to try to alleviate or to remove them: hence sprang the art of medicine. In the early ages of the world, indeed, there could not be much occasion for a science which is now so necessary to the health and happiness of mankind. The simplicity of their manners, the plainness of their diet, their temperance in meat and drink, and their active life (being generally occupied in the field, and in rural affairs), naturally tended to strengthen the body, and to afford a greater share of health than what we now enjoy. The powers of human nature were not then so much prejudiced by luxury and intemperance, which are now the occasion of so many diseases: and to this unhappy source is owing our advancement in the knowledge of physic.

Antiently, at Babylon, the sick, when they were first attacked with a disease, were left in the streets, for the purpose of learning from those who might pass them, what practices or what medicines had been of assistance to them, when afflicted with a similar disease. This was perhaps done also in other countries. The Egyptians carried their sick into the temple of Serapis; the Greeks carried theirs into those of Esculapius.* In both of these temples, there were preserved written receipts of the means by which various cures

¹ A sort of academical degree was conferred on the pupils in the Jewish seminaries, which, after the destruction of Jerusalem, were established at Babylon and Tiberias. The circumstances attending the conferring of this degree, are described by Maimonides (*Jadchazaka*, lib. vi. 4.) as follow. 1. The candidate for the degree was examined, both in respect to his moral character and his literary acquisitions. 2. Having undergone this examination with approbation, the disciple then ascended an elevated seat, Matt. xxiii. 2. 3. A writing tablet was presented to him, to signify, that he should write down his acquisitions, since they might escape from his memory, and, without being written down, be lost. 4. A key was presented to signify, that he might now open to others the treasures of knowledge. (Luke xi. 52.) 5. Hands were laid upon him; a custom derived from Numb. xxvii. 18. 6. A certain power or authority was conferred upon him, probably to be exercised over his own disciples. 7. Finally, he was saluted in the school of Tiberias, with the title of *Rabbi*, רב, in the school of Babylon, with that of *Master*, מר.

had been effected. With the aid of these recorded remedies, the art of healing assumed in the progress of time the aspect of a science. It assumed such a form, first in Egypt, and at a much more recent period, in Greece; but it was not long before those of the former were surpassed in excellence by the physicians of the latter country. That the Egyptians, however, had no little skill in medicine, may be gathered from what is said in the Pentateuch, respecting the marks of leprosy. That some of the medical prescriptions should fail of bringing the expected relief is nothing strange, since Pliny himself mentions some which are far from producing the effects he ascribes to them. Physicians are mentioned first in Gen. i. 2. Exod. xxi. 19. Job xiii. 4. Some acquaintance with chirurgical operations is implied in the rite of circumcision. (Gen. xvii. 11—14.) There is ample evidence, that the Israelites had some acquaintance with the internal structure of the human system, although it does not appear that dissections of the human body for medical purposes, were made till as late as the time of Ptolemy. That physicians sometimes undertook to exercise their skill, in removing diseases of an internal nature, is evident from the circumstance of David's playing upon the harp to cure the malady of Saul. (1 Sam. xvi. 16.) The art of healing was committed among the Hebrews, as well as among the Egyptians, to the priests; who, indeed, were obliged by a law of the state, to take cognizance of leprosy. (Lev. xiii. 1—14. 57. Dent. xxiv. 8, 9.) Reference is made to physicians who were not priests, and to instances of sickness, disease, healing, &c. in the following passages, viz. 1 Sam. xvi. 16. 1 Kings i. 2—4. xv. 23. 2 Kings viii. 29. ix. 15. Isa. i. 6. Jer. viii. 22. Ezek. xxx. 21. Prov. iii. 18. xi. 30. xii. 18. xvi. 15. The probable reason of King Asa's not seeking help from God, but from the physicians, as mentioned in 2 Chron. xvi. 12., was, that they had not at that period recourse to the simple medicines, which nature offered, but to certain superstitious rites and incantations; and this, no doubt, was the ground of the reflection, which was cast upon him. The balm or balsam was particularly celebrated, as a medicine. (Jer. viii. 22. xvi. 11. li. 8.) About the time of Christ, the Hebrew physicians both made advancements in science, and increased in numbers.¹ It appears from the Talmud², that the Hebrew physicians were accustomed to salute the sick by saying, "*Arise from your disease.*" This salutation had a miraculous effect in the mouth of Jesus. (Mark v. 41.) According to the Jerusalem Talmud, a sick man was judged to be in a way of recovery, who began to take his usual food. (Compare Mark v. 43.) The antients were accustomed to attribute the origin of diseases, particularly of those whose natural causes they did not understand, to the *immediate* interference of the deity. Hence they were denominated by the antient Greeks, *Μαστιγες*, or the *scourges of God*, a word which is employed in the New

¹ Mark v. 26. Luke iv. 23. v. 21. viii. 43. Josephus, Antiq. Jud. lib. xvii. c. 6. § 5.

² Schabbath, p. 110.

Testament by the physician Luke himself (vii. 21.), and also in Mark v. 29. 34.

IX. Various diseases are mentioned in the sacred writings, as cancers, consumption, dropsy, epilepsy, fevers, gangrenes, *Leprosy*, (respecting which see pp. 326—329. *supra*.) lunacy, &c. Concerning a few diseases, the nature of which has exercised the critical acumen of physicians as well as divines, the following observations may be satisfactory to the reader.

1. The *Disease of the Philistines*, mentioned in 1 Sam. v. 6. 12. and vi. 17., has been supposed to be the dysentery: but it was most probably the hæmorrhoids or bleeding piles, in a very aggravated degree.

2. The *Disease of Saul* (1 Sam. xvi. 14.) appears to have been a true madness, of the melancholic or atrabilious kind, as the ancient physicians termed it; the fits of which returned on the unhappy monarch at uncertain periods, as is frequently the case in this sort of malady. The remedy applied, in the judgment of experienced physicians, was an extremely proper one, viz. playing on the harp. The character of the modern oriental music is expression, rather than science: and it may be easily conceived how well adapted the unstudied and artless strains of David were to soothe the perturbed mind of Saul; which strains were bold and free from his courage, and sedate through his piety.

3. The *Disease of Jehoram king of Israel*.—This sovereign, who was clothed with the double infamy of being at once an idolater and the murderer of his brethren, was diseased internally for two years, as had been predicted by the prophet Elijah; and his bowels are said at last to have fallen out by reason of his sickness. (2 Chron. xxi. 12—15. 18, 19.) This disease, Dr. Mead says, beyond all doubt was the dysentery, and though its continuance so long a time was very uncommon, it is by no means a thing unheard of. The intestines in time become ulcerated by the operation of this disease. Not only blood is discharged from them, but a sort of mucous excrements likewise is thrown off, and sometimes small pieces of the flesh itself; so that apparently the intestines are emitted or fall out, which is sufficient to account for the expressions that are used in the statement of king Jehoram's disease.

4. The *Disease with which Hezekiah was afflicted* (2 Kings xx. 7. Isa. xxxviii. 21.), has been variously supposed to be a pleurisy, the plague, the elephantiasis, and the quinsey. But Dr. Mead is of opinion that the malady was a fever which terminated in an abscess; and for promoting its suppuration a cataplasm of figs was admirably adapted. The case of Hezekiah, however, indicates not only the limited knowledge of the Jewish physicians at that time, but also that though God can cure by a miracle, yet he also gives sagacity to discover and apply the most natural remedies.

5. Concerning the nature of *Nebuchadnezzar's malady* (Dan. iv. 25, 26. 31—33.) learned men are greatly divided, but the most probable account of it is that given by Dr. Mead; who remarks

that all the circumstances of it, as related by Daniel, so perfectly agree with hypochondriacal madness, that to him it appears evident, that Nebuchadnezzar was seized with this distemper, and under its influence ran wild into the fields: and that fancying himself transformed into an ox, he fed on grass in the manner of cattle. For every sort of madness is a disease of a disturbed imagination; which this unhappy man laboured under full seven years. And through neglect of taking proper care of himself, his hair and nails grew to an excessive length; by which the latter growing thicker and crooked, resembled the claws of birds. Now, the ancients called persons affected with this species of madness *λυκανθρώποι* (wolf-men) or *κυνανθρώποι* (dog-men); because they went abroad in the night, imitating wolves or dogs, particularly intent upon opening the sepulchres of the dead, and had their legs much ulcerated, either by frequent falls, or the bites of dogs. In like manner are the daughters of Proetus related to have been mad, who, as Virgil says,

— *Implevunt falsis mugilibus agros.* ²

— With minick'd mooings fill'd the fields.

For, as Servius observes, Juno possessed their minds with such a species of madness, that fancying themselves cows, they ran into the fields, bellowed often, and dreaded the plough. But these, according to Ovid, the physician Melampus,

— *per carmen et herbas*

Eripuit furis. ³

Snatch'd from the furies by his charms and herbs.

Nor was this disorder unknown to the moderns; for Schenckius records a remarkable instance of it in a husbandman of Padua, who imagining that he was a wolf, attacked, and even killed several persons in the fields; and when at length he was taken, he persevered in declaring himself a real wolf, and that the only difference consisted in the inversion of his skin and hair. ⁴ But it may be objected to this opinion, that this misfortune was foretold to the king, so that he might have prevented it by correcting his morals; and therefore it is not probable, that it betel him in the course of nature. But we know that those things, which God executes either through clemency or vengeance, are frequently performed by the assistance of natural causes. Thus having threatened Hezekiah with death, and being afterwards moved by his prayers, he restored him to life, and made use of figs laid on the tumour, as a medicine for his disease. He ordered king Herod, upon account of his pride, to be devoured by lions. And no one doubts but that the plague, which is generally attributed to the divine wrath, most commonly owes its origin to corrupted air.

¹ See Aetius, lib. Medicin. lib. vi. and Paul. Aegineta, lib. iii. cap. xvi.

² Virg. Georg. lib. ii. v. 325.

³ *Observationes Medicæ Raræ de Lycanthrop. Obs. i.*

6. The *Palsy* of the New Testament is a disease of very wide import, and the Greek word, which is so translated, comprehended not fewer than five different maladies, viz: (1.) *Apoplexy*, a paralytic shock, which affected the whole body; — (2.) *Hemiplegy*, which affects and paralyzes only one side of the body; the case mentioned in Matt. ix. 2. appears to have been of this sort; — (3.) *Paraplegy*, which paralyzes all the parts of the system below the neck; — (4.) *Catalepsy*, which is caused by a contraction of the muscles in the whole or part of the body; the hands, for instance. This is a very dangerous disease; and the effects upon the parts seized are very violent and deadly. Thus, when a person is struck with it, if his hand happens to be extended, he is unable to draw it back: if the hand be not extended, when he is so struck, he is unable to extend it. It seems to be diminished in size, and dried up in appearance; whence the Hebrews were accustomed to call it a *withered hand*. The impious Jeroboam was struck with catalepsy (1 Kings xiii. 4—6.); the prophet Zechariah, among the judgments he was commissioned to denounce against the *idol shepherd that leaveth the flock*, threatens that *his arm shall be dried up*. (Zech. xi. 17.) Other instances of this malady occur in Matt. xii. 10. and John v. 3. 5. — (5.) The *Cramp*. This, in oriental countries, is a fearful malady, and by no means unfrequent. It originates from the chills of the night: the limbs, when seized with it, remain immovable, sometimes turned in and sometimes out, in the very same position as when they were first seized. The person afflicted resembles a man undergoing the torture, *βδσανίζομενον*, and experiences nearly the same sufferings. Death follows this disease in a few days. Alcimus was struck with it (1 Macc. ix. 55—58.), as also was the centurion's servant. (Matt. viii. 6.)

7. The malady which afflicted the patriarch Job (ii. 7.) has greatly exercised the ingenuity of commentators, who have supposed it to be the *leprosy*, the *small-pox*, and the *elephantiasis*. The last opinion is adopted by Drs. Mead and Heberden, and by Michaelis; and appears to be best supported. In this disorder the skin becomes uneven and wrinkled with many furrows, like that of the elephant, whence it takes its name. When it attains a certain height, as it appears to have done in this instance, it is incurable, and consequently affords the unhappy patient no prospect but that of long-continued misery.

8. The disease, which in Matt. ix. 20. Mark v. 25. and Luke viii. 43. is denominated an *Issue of Blood*, is too well known to require any explanation. Physicians confess it to be a disorder which is very difficult of cure. (Mark v. 26.) How does this circumstance magnify the benevolent miracle, wrought by Jesus on a woman who had laboured under it for twelve years!

9. The *Blindness* of the sorcerer Elymas (Acts xiii. 6—12.) is in the Greek denominated *αχλος*, and with great propriety, being rather an obscuration than a total extinction of sight. It was occa-

sioned by a thin coat or tunicle of hard substance, which spread itself over a portion of the eye, and interrupted the power of vision. Hence the disease is likewise called *σκότος* or *darkness*. It was sily cured, and sometimes even healed of itself, without resorting any medical prescription. Therefore Saint Paul added in his denunciation, that the impostor *should not see the sun for a season*. But the blindness of the man, of whose miraculous restoration to sight we have so interesting an account in John ix., was total, and being inveterate from his birth, was incurable by any human art or skill. See an examination of this miracle in Vol. I. pp. 254, 255. 271—273.

10. Lastly, in the New Testament we meet with repeated instances of what are termed *Demoniacal Possession*. The reality of such possessions indeed has been denied by some authors, and attempts have been made by others to account for them, either as the effect of natural disease, or the influence of imagination on persons of a nervous habit. But it is manifest, that the persons, who in the New Testament are said to be *possessed with devils* (more correctly with demons) cannot mean only persons afflicted with some strange disease: for they are evidently here as in other places, — particularly in Luke iv. 33—36. 41. — distinguished from the diseased. Further, Christ's speaking on various occasions to these evil spirits, as distinct from the persons possessed by them, — his commanding them and asking them questions, and receiving answers from them, or not suffering them to speak, — and several circumstances relating to the terrible preternatural effects which they had upon the possessed, and to the manner of Christ's evoking them, — particularly their requesting and obtaining permission to enter the herd of swine (Matt. viii. 31, 32.), and precipitating them into the sea; all these circumstances can *never* be accounted for by any distemper whatever. Nor is it any reasonable objection, that we do not read of such frequent possessions before or since the appearance of our Redeemer upon earth. It seems indeed to have been ordered by a special providence that they should have been permitted to have *then* been more common; in order that He, who came to destroy the works of the Devil, might the more remarkably and visibly triumph over him; and that the machinations and devices of Satan might be more openly defeated, at a time when their power was at its highest, both in the souls and bodies of men; and also, that plain facts might be a sensible confutation of the Sadducean error, which denied the existence of angels or spirits (Acts xxiii. 8.), and prevailed among the principal men both for rank and learning in those days. The cases of the demoniacs expelled by the apostles, were cases of real possession: and it is a well-known fact, that in the second century of the Christian æra, the apologists for the persecuted professors of the faith of Christ, appealed to their ejection of evil spirits as a proof of the divine origin of their religion. Hence it is evident that the demoniacs were *not* merely insane or

epileptic patients, but persons really and truly vexed and convulsed by unclean demons.¹

SECTION IV.

ON THE COMMERCE OF THE HEBREWS.

I. Commerce of the Midianites, Egyptians, and Phœnicians. — II. Mode of transporting Goods. — III. Commerce of the Hebrews, particularly under Solomon and his successors. — IV. Notice of antient Shipping. — V. Money, Weights, and Measures.

I. THE Scriptures do not afford us any example of trade, more antient than those caravans of Ishmaelites and Midianites, to whom Joseph was perfidiously sold by his brethren. These men were on their return from Gilead, with their camels laden with spices, and other rich articles of merchandize, which they were carrying into Egypt; where, doubtless, they produced a great return, from the quantities consumed in that country for embalming the bodies of the dead. From their purchasing Joseph, and selling him to Potiphar, it is evident that their traffic was not confined to the commodities furnished by Gilead. But the most distinguished merchants of antient times were the Phœnicians, who bought the choicest productions of the East, which they exported to Africa and Europe, whence they took in return silver and other articles of merchandize, which they again circulated in the East. Their first metropolis was Sidon, and afterwards Tyre, founded about 250 years before the building of Solomon's temple, or 1251 before the Christian æra: and wherever they went, they appear to have established peaceful commercial settlements, mutually beneficial to themselves and to the natives of the country visited by them. The commerce of Tyre is particularly described in Isa. xxiii. and Ezek. xxvii. xxviii.

II. The commerce of the East appears to have been chiefly carried on by land: hence ships are but rarely mentioned in the Old Testament before the times of David and Solomon. There were two principal routes from Palestine to Egypt; viz. one along the coasts of the Mediterranean Sea, from Gaza to Pelusium, which was about three days' journey; and the other from Gaza to the Elanitic branch of the Arabian Gulf, which now passes near Mount Sinai, and requires nearly a month to complete it. Although chariots were not unknown to the antient inhabitants of the East, yet they chiefly transported their merchandise across the desert on

¹ For a summary of the evidence that the demoniacs mentioned in the New Testament were persons really possessed by evil spirits, see Bp. Newton's works, vol. iv. pp. 256—304. and Mr. Townsend's Harmony of the New Testament, vol. i. pp. 157—160.

Is, a hardy race of animals, admirably adapted by nature for this purpose: and lest they should be plundered by robbers, the merchants used to travel in large bodies (as they now do), which are called *caravans*; or in smaller companies termed *kafilés* or *kaflés*. (Job vi. 18, 19. Gen. xxxvii. 25. Isa. xxi. 13.)

III. Although the land of Canaan was, from its abundant produce, admirably adapted to commerce, yet Moses enacted no laws in favour of trade; because the Hebrews, being specially set apart for the preservation of true religion, could not be dispersed among idolatrous nations without being in danger of becoming contaminated with their abominable worship. He therefore only inculcated the strictest justice in weights and measures (Levit. xix. 36, 37. Deut. xxv. 13, 14.); and left the rest to future ages and governors. It is obvious, however, that the three great festivals of the Jews, who were bound to present themselves before Jehovah thrice in the year, would give occasion for much domestic traffic, which the individuals of the twelve tribes would carry on with each other either for money or produce. From Judg. v. 17. it should seem that the tribes of Dan and Asher had some commercial dealings with the neighbouring maritime nations: but the earliest *direct* notice contained in the Scriptures of the commerce of the Hebrews, does not occur before the reign of David. This wise and valiant prince, by many victories, not only enlarged the boundaries of his empire, but also subdued the kingdom of Edom (which he reduced into a province), and made himself master of the two ports of Elath and Ezion-geber on the Red Sea. Part of the wealth acquired by his conquests he employed in purchasing cedar-timber from Hiram I. king of Tyre, with whom he maintained a friendly correspondence as long as he lived: and he also hired Tyrian masons and carpenters for carrying on his works.¹ This prince collected for the building of the temple, upwards of eight hundred millions of our money, according to Dr. Arbuthnot's calculations.² On the death of David, Solomon his successor cultivated the arts of peace, and was thereby enabled to indulge his taste for magnificence and luxury, more than his father could possibly do. Being blessed with a larger share of wisdom than ever before fell to the lot of any man, he directed his talents for business to the improvement of foreign commerce, which had not been expressly prohibited by Moses. He employed the vast wealth amassed by his father, in works of architecture, and in strengthening and beautifying his kingdom. The celebrated temple at Jerusalem, the fortifications of that capital, and many entire cities, (among which was the famous Tadmor or Palmyra,) were built by him. Finding his own subjects but

¹ Eupolemus, an ancient writer quoted by Eusebius (De Præp. Evang. lib. ix.), says that David built ships in Arabi, in which he sent men skilled in mines and metals to the island of Ophir. Some modern authors, improving upon this rather suspicious authority, have ascribed to David the honour of being the founder of the great East Indian commerce.

little qualified for such undertakings, he applied to Hiram II. king of Tyre, the son of his father's friend Hiram, who furnished him with cedar and fir (or cypress) timber, and large stones, all properly cut and prepared for building; which the Tyrians carried by water to the most convenient landing-place in Solomon's dominions. Hiram II. also sent a great number of workmen to assist and instruct Solomon's people, none of whom had skill to *hew timber like unto the Sidonians* (1 Kings v. 5, 6.), as the Israelites then called the Tyrians, from their having been originally a colony from Sidon. Solomon, in return, furnished the Tyrians with corn, wine, and oil; and he even received a balance in gold. (1 Kings v. 9—11. 2 Chron. ii. 10.) It is not improbable, however, that the gold was the stipulated price for Solomon's cession of twenty towns to the Tyrians; which Hiram, not liking them, afterwards returned to him. (1 Kings ix. 12, 13.)

The great intercourse of trade and friendship, which Solomon had with the first commercial people in the western world, inspired him with a strong desire to participate in the advantages of trade. His father's conquests, as we have already seen, had extended his territories to the Red Sea or the Arabian Gulph, and had given him the possession of a good harbour, whence ships might be despatched to the rich countries of the south and east. But, his own subjects being totally ignorant of the arts of building and navigating vessels, he again had recourse to the assistance of Hiram. The king of Tyre, who was desirous of an opening to the oriental commerce, the articles of which his subjects were obliged to receive at second hand from the Arabians, entered readily into the views of the Hebrew monarch. Accordingly, Tyrian carpenters were sent to build vessels for both kings at Ezion-geber, Solomon's port on the Red Sea; whither Solomon himself also went to animate the workmen by his presence.

Solomon's ships, conducted by Tyrian navigators, sailed in company with those of Hiram to some rich countries, called Ophir, (most probably Sofala on the eastern coast of Africa,) and Tarshish, a place supposed to be somewhere on the same coast.¹ The voyage required three years to accomplish it; yet, notwithstanding the length of time employed in it, the returns in this new channel of trade were prodigiously great and profitable, consisting of gold, silver, precious stones, valuable woods, and some exotic animals, as apes and peacocks. We have no information concerning the

¹ It is certain that under Pharaoh Necho, two hundred years after the time of Solomon, this voyage was made by the Egyptians. (Herodotus, lib. iv. c. 42.) They sailed from the Red Sea, and returned by the Mediterranean, and they performed it in three years; just the same time that the voyage under Solomon had taken up. It appears likewise from Pliny (Nat. Hist. lib. ii. c. 67.), that the passage round the Cape of Good Hope was known and frequently practised before his time; by Hanno the Carthaginian, when Carthage was in all its glory; by one Eudoxus, in the time of Ptolemy Lathyrus, king of Egypt; and Caelius Antipater, an historian of good credit, somewhat earlier than Pliny, testifies that he had seen a merchant who had made the voyage from Gades to Æthiopia.

articles exported in this trade; but, in all probability, the manufactures of the Tyrians, together with the commodities imported by them from other countries, were assorted with the corn, wine, and of Solomon's dominions in making up the cargoes; and his ships, like the late Spanish galleons, imported the bullion, partly the benefit of his industrious and commercial neighbours. (1 Kings vii.—x. 2 Chron. ii. viii. ix.) Solomon also established a commercial correspondence with Egypt; whence he imported horses, chariots, and fine linen-yarn: the chariots cost six hundred, and the horses one hundred and fifty shekels of silver each. (1 Kings x. 28, 29. 2 Chron. i. 16, 17.)

After the division of the kingdom, Edom being in that portion which remained to the house of David, the Jews appear to have carried on the oriental trade from the two ports of Elath and Ezion-geber, especially the latter, until the time of Jehoshaphat, whose fleet was wrecked there. (1 Kings xxii. 48. 2 Chron. xx. 36, 37.) During the reign of Jehoram, the wicked successor of Jehoshaphat, the Edomites shook off the yoke of the Jewish sovereigns, and recovered their ports. From this time the Jewish traffic, through the Red Sea, ceased till the reign of Uzziah; who, having recovered Elath soon after his accession, expelled the Edomites thence, and, having fortified the place, peopled it with his own subjects, who renewed their former commerce. This appears to have continued till the reign of Ahaz, when Rezin, king of Damascus, having oppressed and weakened Judah in conjunction with Pekah, king of Israel, took advantage of this circumstance to seize Elath; whence he expelled the Jews, and planted it with Syrians. In the following year, however, Elath fell into the hands of Tiglath-pileser, king of Assyria, who conquered Rezin, but did not restore it to his friend and ally, king Ahaz.¹ Thus finally terminated the commercial prosperity of the kingdoms of Judah and Israel. After the captivity, indeed, during the reigns of the Asmonæan princes, the Jews became great traders. In the time of Pompey the Great, there were so many Jews abroad on the ocean, even in the character of pirates, that king Antigonos was accused before him of having sent them out on purpose. During the period of time comprised in the New Testament history, Joppa and Cæsarea were the two principal ports; and corn continued to be a staple article of export to Tyre. (Acts xii. 20.)²

IV. Respecting the size and architecture of the Jewish ships, we have no information whatever. The trading vessels of the ancients were, in general, much inferior in size to those of the moderns: Cicero mentions a number of ships of burthen, none of which were

¹ During this period, the Jews seem to have had privileged streets at Damascus, as the Syrians had in Samaria. (1 Kings xx. 34.) In later times, during the crusades, the Genoese and Venetians, who had assisted the Latin kings of Jerusalem, had streets assigned to them, with great liberties and exclusive jurisdictions therein. See Harmer's *Observations*, vol. iii. pp. 489—492.

² *Jahru, Archæol. Hebr.* pp. 169—174. Macpherson's *Annals of Commerce*, vol. i. pp. 22—24. 2. *Prideaux's Connexion*, vol. i. pp. 5—10. 8th edit.

below two thousand amphoræ, that is, not exceeding fifty-six tons¹; and in a trading vessel, in all probability of much less burthen, bound with corn from Alexandria in Egypt to Rome, St. Paul was embarked at Myra in Lycia. From the description of his voyage in Acts xxvii. it is evident to what small improvement the art of navigation had then attained. They had no compass by which they could steer their course across the trackless deep; and the sacred historian represents their situation as peculiarly distressing, when the sight of the sun, moon, and stars was intercepted from them. (Acts xxvii. 20.) The vessel being overtaken by one of those tremendous gales, which at certain seasons of the year prevail in the Mediterranean (where they are now called *Levanters*), *they had much work to come by the ship's boat*, which appears to have been towed along after the vessel, agreeably to the custom that still obtains in the East, where the skiffs are fastened to the sterns of the ships (16.); *which having taken up*, that is, having drawn it up close to the stern, they proceeded to *undergird the ship*. (17.) We learn from various passages in the Greek and Roman authors, that the ancients had recourse to this expedient in order to secure their vessels, when in imminent danger²; and this method has been used even in modern times.³

Much ingenious conjecture has been hazarded relative to the nature of the *rudder-bands*, mentioned in Acts xxvii. 40.; but the supposed difficulty will be obviated by attending to the structure of ancient vessels. It was usual for all large ships, (of which description were the Alexandrian corn ships,) to have *two* rudders, a kind of very large and broad oars, which were fixed at the head and stern. The bands were some kinds of fastenings, by which these rudders were hoisted some way out of the water: for, as they could be of no use in the storm, and in the event of fair weather coming the vessel could not do without them, this was a prudent way of securing them from being broken to pieces by the agitation of the waves. These bands being loosed, the rudders would fall down into their proper places, and serve to steer the vessel into the creek which they now had in view.⁴

¶ Commerce could not be carried on without coin, nor without a system of weights and measures.

Although the Scriptures frequently mention gold, silver, brass,

¹ Epist. ad Familiares, lib. xii. ep. 15.

² Raphaelius and Wetstein, in loc. have collected numerous testimonies.

³ The process of under-girding a ship is thus performed:—A stout cable is slipped under the vessel at the prow, which the seamen can conduct to any part of the ship's keel, and then fasten the two ends on the deck, to keep the planks from starting. As many rounds as may be necessary, may be thus taken about the vessel. An instance of this kind is mentioned in Lord Anson's voyage round the world. Speaking of a Spanish man-of-war in a storm, the writer says,—"They were obliged to throw overboard all their upper-deck guns; and take six turns of the cable round the ship, to prevent her opening." (p. 24. 4to. edit.) Ep. Pearce and Dr. A. Clarke on Acts xxvii. 17. Two instances of under-girding a ship are noticed in the Chevalier de Johnstone's *Memoirs of the Rebellion in 1745-6*, (London, 1822, 8vo.) p. 421. 434.

⁴ Elsner and Wetstein, on Acts xxvii. 40.

certain sums of money, purchases made with money, current money, and money of a certain weight; yet the use of coin or stamped *Money* appears to have been of late introduction among them. Calmet is of opinion that the antient Hebrews took gold and silver only by weight, and that they regarded the purity of the metal and not the stamp. The most antient mode of carrying on trade, unquestionably, was by way of barter, or exchanging one commodity for another; a custom which obtains in some places even to this day. In process of time such metals as were deemed the most valuable, were received into traffic, and were weighed out; until the inconveniences of this method induced men to give to each metal a certain mark, weight, and degree of alloy, in order to determine its value, and save both buyers and sellers the trouble of weighing and examining the metal. The coinage of money was of late date among the Persians, Greeks, and Romans. The Persians had none coined before the reign of Darius the son of Hystaspes, nor had the Greeks (whom the Romans most probably imitated) any before the time of Alexander. We have no certain vestiges of the existence of coined money, among the Egyptians, before the time of the Ptolemies; nor had the Hebrews any coinage until the government of Judas Maccabæus, to whom Antiochus Sidetes, king of Syria, granted the privilege of coining his own money in Judæa. Before these respective times, all payments were made by weight; this will account for one and the same word (*shekel*, which comes from *shakal*, to weigh) denoting both a certain weight of any commodity, and also a determinate sum of money.¹

Weights and Measures were regulated at a very early period in Asia. Moses made various enactments concerning them for the Hebrews; and both weights and measures, which were to serve as standards both for form and contents, were deposited at first in the tabernacle, and afterwards in the temple, under the cognisance of the priests. On the destruction of Solomon's temple, these standards necessarily perished; and, during the captivity, the Hebrews used the weights and measures of their masters.

For tables of the weights, measures, and money, which are mentioned in the Bible, the reader is referred to No. II. of the Appendix to this volume.

¹ Calmet's Dictionary, vol. ii. article *Money*. See a full account of the money coined by the Maccabæan princes, in F. P. Bayer's *Dissertatio De Numis Hebræo-Samaritanis*. Valentia Edetanorum. 1781. 4to.

CHAPTER VIII.

ALLUSIONS TO THE THEATRES, TO THEATRICAL PERFORMANCES, AND TO THE GRECIAN GAMES, IN THE NEW TESTAMENT.

I. *Allusions to the Theatres and to Theatrical Performances in the New Testament.*—II. *Allusions to the Grecian Games, particularly the Olympic Games.*—1. *Qualifications of the Candidates—Preparatory Discipline to which they were subjected.*—2. *Foot-race.*—3. *Rewards of the Victors.*—4. *Beautiful allusions to these Games in the New Testament, explained.*

I. **NOTHING** seems more foreign to the manners of the Israelites than theatres, public shews, or those exercises in which gladiators fought naked, and hazarded their lives for the sake of diverting a multitude of spectators,—a barbarous amusement, which has happily been abolished by the beneficent influence of the Gospel. There were in the cities of the heathens certain places appointed for public sports. The theatres held a great number of persons, and were so contrived that all could conveniently see.¹ In the performances there exhibited the Gentiles took great delight: and this circumstance accounts for so many theatres being erected in Judæa, soon after it became subject to a foreign dominion. The theatres also appear to have been places of public meeting on particular occasions. Thus, at Ephesus, *Gaius and Aristarchus, Paul's companions in travel*, were taken to the theatre; but the apostle was prevented from entering in among them for fear of increasing the tumult of the people. (Acts xix. 29, 30.)

“In all countries the stage has ever furnished different languages with the most beautiful metaphors that adorn them.”² In every tongue we read of the drama of human life³: its scenes are described as continually shifting and varying: mortal life is represented as an

¹ See Lamy. De Tabernaculo, lib. iv. c. 7. § 3.

² For the following account of the theatrical representations, and of the Grecian games alluded to, in the New Testament, the author is indebted to Dr. Harwood's Introduction, vol. ii. sections 1. and 4., collated with Brüning's Compendium Antiquitatum Græcarum e profanis Sacrarum, pp. 352.—376., from which treatise Dr. H. appears principally to have derived his materials.

³ Σκηνη was ὁ βίος, καὶ παιγνιον ἡ μαθεὶς παιζειν,

Την σπουδην μετὰ εἰς, ἡ φερε τας οἰκίας.—Epigram in Antholog.

Quomodo fabula, sic vita; non quàm diu, sed quàm bene acta sit, refert. Nihil ad rem pertinet, quo loco desinas: quocumque voles desine: tantùm bonam clausulam impone. Seneca, epist. lxxvii. tom. ii. p. 306. edit. Elz. 1673. Οἷον εἰ κωμῶδον ἀπολυε τῆς σκηνῆς ὁ παραλαβὼν σπῆλγος ἀλλ' οὐκ εἶπον τὰ πέντε μέρη, ἀλλὰ τὰ τρία, καλῶς εἶπας· ἐν μέντοι τῷ βίῳ τὰ τρία λήγουσιν ὅραμα ἐστίν. Mar. Antoninus, lib. xii. p. 236. edit. Oxon. The words of the Psalmist,—“we spend our days as a tale that is told,”—have been supposed to be an allusion to a dramatic fable. The imagery, considered in this view, would be striking, did we know that the early Jews ever had any scenical representations.

intricate plot, which will gradually unfold and finally wind up into harmony and happiness; and the world is styled a magnificent theatre, in which God has placed us, — assigned to every man a character — is a constant spectator how he supports this character, — and will finally applaud or condemn according to the good or bad execution of the part, whatever it is, he has been appointed to act.¹ The drama was instituted to exhibit a striking picture of human life, and, in a faithful mirror, to hold up to the spectator's view that miscellany of characters which diversify it, and those interchanges and reverses of fortune which chequer it.² It is scarcely necessary to remark, though the observation is proper for the sake of illustrating a very beautiful passage in one of St. Paul's Epistles, that a variety of scenes is painted, which by means of the requisite machinery, are very frequently shifting, in order to shew the characters in a variety of places and fortunes. To the spectator, lively and affecting views are by turns displayed, sometimes, for example, of Thebes, sometimes of Athens,³ one while of a palace, at another of a prison; now of a splendid triumph, and now of a funeral procession, — every thing, from the beginning to the catastrophe, perpetually varying and changing, according to the rules and conduct of the drama. Agreeable to this, with what elegance and propriety does St. Paul, whom we find quoting Menander, one of the most celebrated writers of the Greek comedy, represent the fashion of this world as continually passing away⁴, and all the scenes of this vain and visionary life as perpetually shifting! "The imagery," says Grotius, "is taken from the theatre, where the scenery is suddenly changed, and exhibits an appearance totally different."⁵ And as the transactions of the drama are not real, but fictitious and imaginary, such and such characters being assumed and personated, in whose joys or griefs, in whose domestic felicities or infelicities, in whose elevation or depression, the actor is not really and personally interested, but only supports a character, perhaps entirely foreign from his own, and represents passions and affections in which his own heart has no share: how beautiful and expressive, when considered in this light, is that passage of Scripture wherein the apostle is inculcating a Christian indifference for this world, and exhorting us not to suffer ourselves to be unduly affected either by the joys or sorrows of so fugitive and transitory a scene! (1 Cor. vii. 29—31.)

¹ Epicteti Enchirid. cap. xvii. p. 699. Upton. Epicteti Dissertationes, ab Arriano. lib. iv. p. 580. Upton.*

² M. Antoninus, lib. xi. § vi. p. 204. edit. Oxon.

³ ———— Modò me Thebis, modò ponit Athenis.

Horat. Epist. lib. ii. ver. 213.

⁴ 1 Cor. vii. 31. Παραγειν γαρ το σχημα του κοσμου τουτου.

⁵ Dicitur, παραγειν το σχημα της σκηνης, ubi scena invertitur, aliamque plane ostendit aciem. Grotius, ad loc. Mais comme Grotius remarque que cette reflexion de l'Apôtre est empruntée du théâtre, et que le mot Grec σχημα, que l'on traduit la figure, signifie proprement un personnage de théâtre, ou une décoration dans Euripide et dans Aristophane, et que les Grecs disoient pour marquer le changement de scène, ou de décoration au théâtre παραγειν το σχημα της σκηνης, on croit qu'il faudroit traduire, La face de ce monde change. On lui convient parfaitement au dessein de l'Apôtre dans cette conjoncture l'objet d'une Nouvelle Version, par le Cene, p. 674. Rotter. 1696.

*But this I say, brethren the time is short. It remaineth that both they that have wives, be as though they had none : and they that weep as though they wept not : and they that rejoice as though they rejoiced not : and they that buy as though they possessed not : and they that use this world as not abusing it.*¹ *For the fashion of this world passeth away.* If we keep in mind the supposed allusion in the text (the fashion of this world passeth away) we shall discern a peculiar beauty and force in his language and sentiment. For the actors in a play, whether it be comedy or tragedy, do not act their own proper and personal concerns, but only personate and mimic the characters and conditions of other men. And so when they weep in acting some tragical part, it is as though they wept not ; and there is more shew and appearance, than truth and reality, of grief and sorrow in the case. On the other hand, if they rejoice in acting some brighter scene, it is as though they rejoiced not ; it is but a feigned semblance of joy, and forced air of mirth and gaiety, which they exhibit to the spectators, no real inward gladness of heart. If they seem to contract marriages, or act the merchant, or personate a gentleman of fortune, still it is nothing but fiction. And so when the play is over, they have no wives, no possessions or goods, no enjoyments of the world, in consequence of such representations. In like manner, by this apt comparison, the apostle would teach us to moderate our desires and affections towards every thing in this world ; and rather, as it were, to personate such things, as matters of a foreign nature, than to incorporate ourselves with them, as our own proper and personal concern.”²

“The theatre is also furnished with dresses suitable to every age, and adapted to every circumstance and change of fortune. The persons of the drama, in one and the same representation, frequently support a variety of characters : the prince and the beggar, the young and the old, change their dress according to the characters in which they respectively appear, by turns laying aside one habit and assuming another, agreeably to every condition and age.”³ The apostle Paul seems to allude to this custom, and his expressions regarded in this light, have a peculiar beauty and energy, when he exhorts Christians to PUT OFF the OLD MAN *with his deeds, and to PUT ON THE NEW MAN.* (Coloss. iii. 9, 10. and in Eph. iv. 22, 23, 24.) *That ye PUT OFF, concerning the former conversation, the OLD MAN, which is corrupt according to the deceitful lusts : and be renewed in the spirit of your minds, and that ye PUT ON THE NEW MAN,*⁴ *which after God is created in righteousness and true holiness.*

¹ Καταχραμενοι is very unhappily rendered abuse. It is here used in a good sense, as the whole passage requires. From the transiency of human life the apostle observes, that those who are now using this world's happiness will soon be as those who had never enjoyed it. The Greek writers use Παραχραμαι or Αποχραμαι to abuse.

² Brekell's Discourses, p. 318.

³ Είναι γὰρ ὅμοιον πρὸς ἀγῶνι ὑποκριτήριον σὺφον· ὃς ἂν τε Θεραπίου ἂν τε Ἀγαμέμνονος πρόσωπον ἀναλάβῃ, ἐκάστην ὑποκρίνεται πρόσῃ νύκτι. Diogenes Laertius, lib. vii. p. 463. edit. Meibomii. 1692.

⁴ Mihi quidem dubium non est quin hæc laudandi ratio ducta sit ab actoribus anti-

"It is, moreover, well known, that in the Roman theatres and amphitheatres, malefactors and criminals were condemned to fight with lions, bears, elephants, and tigers, for which¹ all parts of the Roman dominions were industriously ransacked, to afford this very polite and elegant amusement to this most refined and civilised people. The wretched miscreant was brought upon the stage, regarded with the last ignominy and contempt by the assembled multitudes, made a gazing-stock to the world, as the apostle expresses it; and a wild beast instigated to madness by the shouts and light missive darts of the spectators, was let loose upon him, to tear and worry him in a miserable manner. To this sanguinary and brutal custom the following expressions of the author of the Epistle to the Hebrews allude. (x. 32, 33.) *Ye endured a great fight of afflictions, partly whilst ye were made a gazing-stock both by reproaches and afflictions.* The original is very emphatical; being openly exposed as on a public theatre to ignominious insults and to the last cruelties.² In another passage also, St. Paul, speaking of the determined fierceness and bigotry with which the citizens of Ephesus opposed him, uses a strong metaphorical expression taken from the theatre: — *If after the manner of men I have fought with beasts at Ephesus.* Not that the apostle appears to have been actually condemned by his enemies to combat with wild beasts in the theatre; he seems only to have employed this strong phraseology, to denote the violence and ferocity of his adversaries, which resembled the rage and fury of brutes, and to compare his contention with these fierce pagan zealots and fanatics to the common theatrical conflict of men with wild beasts.³

habitu mutato, vestibusque depositis, alias partes agunt, aliosque se esse produnt, quam qui in scenâ esse videbantur. Krebsii Observationes in Nov. Test. p. 342. Lipsiæ, 1755.

¹ ——— Quodcunque tremendum est
Dentibus, aut insigne júbis, aut nobile cornu,
Aut rigidum setis capitur, decus omne timorque
Sylvarum, non caule latent, non mole resistunt.—Claudian.

² *Ονειδισμοῖς τε καὶ θλίψεσι θεαριζόμενοι*, exposed on a public stage. *Dispensatorem ad bestias dedit.* Hoc est, *seipsum traducere.* Id est, says one of the commentators, ludibrio exponere. Petronius Arbiter, p. 220. edit. Burman. 1709. *Εξεθεαρίσαν εαυτοὺς.* They openly exposed themselves. Polybius, p. 364. Hanov. 1619. Eusebius relates that Attalus, a Christian, was led round the amphitheatre and exposed to the insults and violence of the multitude. *Περιοχθεὶς κυκλῶ του ἀμφιθεατροῦ.* Eusebius Hist. Eccles. lib. v. p. 206. Cantab. Solebant olim gladiatores et bestias, antequam certamen obirent per ora populi circumduci, Valesii not. in loc. There is a striking passage in Philo, where, in the same strong metaphorical imagery the apostle here employs, Flaccus is represented deploring the public ignominy to which he was now reduced. See Philonis Opera, tom. ii. p. 542. edit. Mangey.

³ The same metaphors are of frequent occurrence in the New Testament. Herod is called a fox, Go and tell that fox. (Luke xiii. 32.) Hypocrites are called wolves in sheep's clothing. (Matt. vii. 15.) Rapacious and mercenary preachers are styled wolves, that will enter and ravage the fold; There will enter among you grievous wolves, not sparing the flock. (Acts xx. 29.) The Apostle uses a harsher metaphor to denote the malice and rage of his adversaries: Beware of dogs. (Philip. iii. 2.) Had St. Paul been thus engaged, says Dr. Ward, it is difficult to apprehend how he could have escaped without a miracle. For those who conquered the beasts, were afterwards obliged to fight with men, all of them were killed themselves. It seems most reasonable therefore to understand the expression [*θεαριζόμενοι*] as metaphorical, and that it alludes to the tumult raised by Demetrius. He uses the fox metaphor, and with respect to the same thing

“ Let it be farther observed, for the elucidating a very striking passage in 1 Cor. iv. 9. that in the Roman amphitheatre the *bestiarii*, who in the morning combated with wild beasts, had armour with which to defend themselves, and to annoy and slay their antagonist. But the last who were brought upon the stage, which was about noon¹, were a miserable number, quite naked, without any weapons to assail their adversary—with immediate and inevitable death before them in all its horrors, and destined to be mangled and butchered in the direst manner. In allusion to this custom, with what sublimity and energy are the apostles represented to be brought out last upon the stage, as being devoted to certain death, and being made a public spectacle to the world, to angels and men! “ For I think that God hath set forth us the apostles last, as it were appointed to death: for we are made a spectacle to the world, to angels and men.” Dr. Whitby’s illustration of this distinguished passage is accurate and judicious. “ Here the apostle seems to allude to the Roman spectacles, της των θηριομαχων και μονομαχιαις ανδροφονου, that of the *bestiarii* and the gladiators, where in the morning men were brought upon the theatre to fight with wild beasts, and to them was allowed armour to defend themselves, and smite the beasts that did assail them: but in the meridian spectacle were brought forth the gladiators naked, and without any thing to defend them from the sword of the assailant, and he that then escaped was only reserved for slaughter to another day; so that these men might well be called επιθανατιοι, men appointed for death; and this being the last appearance on the theatre for that day, they are said here to be set forth εσχατοι, the last.”²

(1 Cor. iv. 9.), and again (13.), alluding to another custom. As to the expression, Κατ’ ανθρωπον in 1 Cor. xv. 32. the sense seems to be *humanitus loquendo*. Dr. Ward’s Dissertations on Scripture, dissert. xlix. pp. 200, 201. The very same word which the apostle here employs to denote the violence and fury of his adversaries is used by Ignatius in the like metaphorical sense, Απο Συριας μεχρι Ρωμης ΘΗΡΙΟΜΑΧΩ δια γης και θαλασσης, νυκτος και ημερας. All the way from Syria to Rome, by sea and by land, by night and by day, do I fight with wild beasts. Ignatii Epist. ad Rom. p. 94. edit. Oxon. 1708. Προφυλασσω δε υμας απο των θηριων ανθρωπομορφων. I advise you to beware of beasts in the shape of men, p. 22. So also the Psalmist, *My soul is among lions, even the sons of men, whose teeth are spears and arrows.* (Psal. lvii. 4.) *Break their teeth, O God, in their mouths. Break out the great teeth of the young lions, O Lord.* (Psal. lviii. 6.) See also Lakemacher’s *Observationes Sacrae*, part ii. pp. 194—196.

¹ Matutinarum non ultimum hora ferarum. Martial. xiii. 95. Casu in meridianum spectaculum incidi—quique ante pugnatum est, misericordia fuit, nunc omissis nugis mera homicidia sunt: nihil habent quo tegantur, ad ictum totis corporibus expositi—non galea, non scuto repellitur ferrum. Seneca, tom. ii. epist. vii. pp. 17, 18. edit. Gronov. 1672. Απολλυντο μεν θηρια ελαχιστα, ανθρωποι δε πολλοι, η μεν αλληλοις μαχομενοι, οι δε και υπ’ εκεινων αναλομενοι. Dion. Cassius. lib. ix. p. 951. Reimar. See also pp. 971, 972. ejusdem edit. omnia. See also Beausobre’s note on 1 Cor. iv. 9. and Lipsii *Saturnalia*, tom. vi. p. 951.

² Dr. Whitby on 1 Cor. ch. iv. 9. Les versions ont exprimé trop généralement ce que St. Paul représente aux Corinthiens touchant son état, (1 Cor. iv. 9.), en disant simplement, Car je pense que Dieu nous a mis en montre, nous qui sommes les derniers Apôtres, comme des gens condamnés à la mort. Car comme Scaliger, Heinsius, Seldenus, Olshorst, et Grotius l’ont remarqué, le mot Grec εσχατους que l’Apôtre emploie, ne se rapporte pas aux Apôtres, et il ne signifie pas simplement les derniers, mais ceux qui étoient produits les derniers dans l’amphithéâtre pour combattre tous nud contre

II. But the most splendid and renowned solemnities, which antient history has transmitted to us, were the Olympic Games. Historians, orators, and poets, abound with references to them, and their sublimest imagery is borrowed from these celebrated exercises. "These games were solemnised every fifth year by an infinite concourse of people from almost all parts of the world.¹ They were celebrated with the greatest pomp and magnificence: hecatombs of victims were slain in honour of the immortal gods: and Elis was a scene of universal festivity and joy. There were other public games instituted, as the Pythian, Nemean, Isthmian; which could also boast of the valour and dexterity of their combatants, and shew a splendid list of illustrious names, who had, from time to time, honoured them with their presence. But the lustre of these, though maintained for a series of years, was obscured, and almost totally eclipsed, by the Olympic. We find that the most formidable and opulent sovereigns of those times were competitors for the Olympic crown. We see the kings of Macedon², the tyrants of Sicily³, the princes of Asia Minor, and at last the lords of imperial Rome, and emperors of the world⁴, incited by a love of glory, the last infirmity of noble minds, enter their names among the candidates, and contend for the envied palm;—judging their felicity completed, and the career of all human glory and greatness happily terminated, if they could but interweave the Olympic garland with the laurels they had purchased in fields of blood." The various games, which the Romans celebrated in their capital and in the principal cities and towns of Italy, with such splendour, ostentation, and expense, seem to have been instituted in imitation of the Grecian; though these were greatly inferior in point of real merit and intrinsic glory; for though the Romans had the gymnastic exercises of the stadium and the chariot race, yet the mutual slaughter of such numbers of gladiators, the combats with lions, bears, and tigers, though congenial to the sanguinary ferocity and brutality of these people,—for no public entertainment could be made agreeable without these scenes,—must present spectacles to the last degree shocking to humanity; for every crown here won, was dipt in blood.

les bêtes, afin qu'ils n'en puissent rechaper. *Projet d'une Nouvelle Version Française de la Bible*, par le Cene, p. 606. Rotterd. 1696.

¹ Josephus *De Bello Jud.* lib. i. cap. 21. § 12. ed. Havercamp. Arriani *Epictetus*, lib. iii. p. 456. edit. Upton. 1741.

² Philip. *Eadem quoque die nuntium pater ejus [Philippus] duarum victoriarum accepit: alterius, belli Illyrici, alterius, certaminis Olympici, in quod quadrigarum currus miserat.* Justin. lib. xii. cap. xvi. p. 359. edit. Gronov. 1719. Cui Alexandro tanta omnium virtutum naturâ ornamenta exstiter, ut etiam Olympio certamine vario ludicrorum genere contenderit. Justin. lib. vii. cap. li. p. 215.

³ Hiero king of Syracuse. See *Pindar's first Olympic ode*; his first Pythian ode. Theron king of Agrigentum. See the *second and third Olympic odes*.

⁴ Nero. See Dion Cassius, tom. ii. pp. 1032, 1033, 1036. edit. Reimar. Aurigavit [Nero] plurifariam, Olympiis etiam decemjugem. Suetonius in *Vita Neronis*, p. 605. edit. var. Lug. Bat. 1662.

⁵ Sunt quos curriculo pulverem Olympicum

Coile, rase, jurent; metaque fervidis

Evitare rotas, et naque nobilis

Terrarum dominos evehit ad Deos.—Horat. lib. i. ode i:

1. "The Olympic exercises principally consisted in running, wrestling, and the chariot-race; for leaping, throwing the dart, and discus, were parts of that they called the Pentathlon. The candidates were to be freemen, and persons of unexceptionable morals.¹ A defect in legitimacy or in personal character totally disqualified them. It was indispensably necessary for them previously to submit to a severe regimen.² At their own homes they prescribed themselves a particular course of diet; and the laws required them, when they had given in their names to be enrolled in the list of competitors, to resort to Elis, and reside there thirty³ days before the games commenced; where their regimen and preparatory exercises were regulated and directed by a number of illustrious persons who were appointed every day to superintend them. This form of diet they authoritatively prescribed, and religiously inspected, that the combatants might acquit themselves in the conflict in a manner worthy the Grecian name, worthy the solemnity of the occasion, and worthy those crowds of illustrious spectators by whom they would be surrounded. There are many passages in the Greek and Roman classics which make mention of that extreme strictness, temperance, and continence which the candidates were obliged to observe.

Qui studet optatam cursu contingere metam,
Multa tulit fecitque puer; sudavit et alsit:
Abstiniit venere et vino. — Hor. Art. Poet. ver. 412.

A youth, who hopes th' Olympic prize to gain,
All arts must try, and every toil sustain;
Th' extremes of heat and cold must often prove,
And shun the weak'ning joys of wine and love. — FRANCIS.

The following is a very distinguished passage in Arrian's discourses of Epictetus, which both represents to the reader the severity of this regimen and the arduous nature of the subsequent contention.⁴ "Do you wish to conquer at the Olympic games — But consider what precedes and follows, and then if it be for your advantage, engage in the affair. You must conform to rules; submit to a diet, refrain from dainties, exercise your body whether you choose it or not, in a stated hour, in heat, and cold; you must drink no cold water, nor sometimes even wine. In a word you must give yourself up to your master, as to a physician. Then, in the combat you may be thrown into a ditch, dislocate your arm, turn your ankle, swallow abundance of dust, be whipped, and, after all, lose the victory. When you have reckoned up all this, if your inclination still holds, set about the combat."⁵

¹ The candidates were obliged to undergo an examination of another kind, consisting of the following interrogatories: 1. Were they freemen? 2. Were they Grecians? 3. Were their characters clear from all infamous and immoral stains? West's Dissertation on the Olympic Games, p. 15. edit. 12mo.

² Arriani Epictetus, lib. iii. p. 456. Upton.

³ Philostratus, de Vita Apollonii, lib. v. cap. xliii. p. 227. edit. Olearii. Lipsiæ, 1709.

⁴ Epictetus, lib. iii. c. 15. See also Epicteti Enchiridion. cap. xxix. p. 710. edit. Upton.

⁵ Mrs. Carter's Translation of Arrian, pp. 268, 269. London, 1758. 4to.

2. "After this preparatory discipline, on the day appointed for the celebration, an herald called over their names, recited to them the laws of the games, encouraged them to exert all their powers, and expatiated upon the blessings and advantages of victory. He then introduced the competitors into the stadium, led them around it, and, with a loud voice, demanded if any one in that assembly could charge any of the candidates with being infamous in his life and morals, could prove him a slave, a robber, or illegitimate.¹ They were then conducted to the altar, and a solemn oath exacted from them, that they would observe the strictest honour in the contention. Afterward, those who were to engage in the foot-race were brought to the barrier, along which they were arranged, and waited, in all the excesses of ardour and impatience, for the signal. The cord being dropped, they all at once sprung forward², fired with the love of glory, conscious that the eyes of all-assembled Greece were now upon them, and that the envied palm, if they won it, would secure them the highest honours and immortalise their memory. It is natural to imagine with what rapidity they would urge their course, and emulous of glory, stretch every nerve to reach the goal. This is beautifully represented in the following elegant epigram (translated by Mr. West) on Arias of Tarsus, victor in the stadium.

The speed of Arias, victor in the race,
Brings to thy founder, Tarsus, no disgrace:
For, able in the course with him to vie,
Like him, he seems on feather'd feet to fly.
The barrier when he quits, the dazzled sight
In vain essays to catch him in his flight.
Lost is the racer through the whole career,
Till victor at the goal he re-appear.

In all these athletic exercises the combatants contended naked³; for though, at first, they wore a scarf round the waist, yet an unfortunate casualty once happening, when this disengaging itself, and entangling round the feet, threw the person down, and proved the unhappy occasion of his losing the victory, it was, after this accident adjudged to be laid aside.⁴

3. "Chaplets composed of the sprigs of a wild olive⁵, and branches of palm, were publicly placed on a tripod in the middle

¹ See West's Dissertation on the Olympic Games, p. 154. 12mo.

² ——— signoque repente

Corripiunt spatia audito, limenque relinquunt.

Effusi, nimbo similes: simul ultima signant. — Virgil. *Æneid.* v. ver. 315.

³ Thucydides, lib. i. § vi. tom. i. pp. 16, 17. ed. Glasg.

⁴ In the xivth Olympiad, one Orsippus, a runner, happened to be thrown down by his scarf tangling about his feet, and was killed; though others say that he only lost the victory by that fall; but which ever way it was, occasion was taken from thence to make a law, that all the athletes for the future should contend naked. West's Dissertation, p. 66. 12mo.

⁵ Το γένος ἐστὶν οὐκ ἀργύρεος, οὐδὲ χρυσεῖας, οὐ μὲν οὐδὲ κοτιναὶ ἀγέφανος ἢ σελινοῦ. Josephus contra Apion. lib. ii. § 90. p. 488. Havercamp. Strabo, in his geographical description of the Elia territories, mentions a grove of wild olive. Ἐστὶ δ' αἰὶς ἀγρίων ὀλίων. Strabo, lib. viii. p. 343. edit. Paris, 1620. Probably from this grove the Olympic chaplets were composed.

of the stadium¹, full in the view of the competitors, to inflame them with all the ardour of contention, and all the spirit of the most generous emulation. Near the goal was erected a tribunal, on which sat the presidents of the games, called Hellanodics, personages venerable for their years and characters, who were the sovereign arbiters and judges of these arduous contentions, the impartial witnesses of the respective merit and pretensions of each combatant, and with the strictest justice conferred the crown.

4. "It is pleasing and instructive to observe, how the several particulars here specified concerning these celebrated solemnities, which were held in the highest renown and glory in the days of the apostles, explain and illustrate various passages in their writings, the beauty, energy, and sublimity of which consist in the metaphorical allusions to these games, from the various gymnastic exercises of which their elegant and impressive imagery is borrowed. Thus the writer of the Epistle to the Hebrews, (an epistle which, in point of composition, may vie with the most pure and elaborate of the Greek classics,) says: *Wherefore seeing we also are compassed about with so great a cloud of witnesses, let us lay aside every weight, and the sin which doth so easily beset us, and let us run with patience the race that is set before us; looking unto Jesus, the author and finisher of our faith, who for the joy that was set before him, endured the cross, despising the shame, and is set down at the right hand of the majesty on high. For consider him that endured such contradiction of sinners against himself, lest you be wearied and faint in your minds. Wherefore lift up the hands that hang down, and the feeble knees; and make straight paths for your feet, lest that which is lame be turned out of the way.* (Heb. xii. 1—3. 12, 13.) In allusion to that prodigious assembly, from all parts of the world², which was convened at Olympia to be spectators of those celebrated games, the apostle places the Christian combatant in the midst of a most august and magnificent theatre, composed of all those great and illustrious characters, whom in the preceding chapter he had enumerated, the fancied presence of whom should fire him with a virtuous ambition, and animate him with unconquered ardour to run the race that was set before him. *Wherefore seeing we are compassed about with such a cloud of witnesses*³: whose eyes are upon us, who expect every thing from the preparatory discipline we have received, and who

¹ To excite the emulation of the competitors, by placing in their view the object of their ambition, these crowns were laid upon a tripod or table, which during the games was brought out and placed in the middle of the stadium. Wret's Dissertation, p. 174. 12mo.

² Not merely the inhabitants of Athens, of Lacedæmon, and of Nicopolis, but the inhabitants of the whole world are convened to be spectators of the Olympic exercises. Arriani Epictetus, lib. iii. pp. 456. Upton.

³ Νέφος μαρτύρων. A cloud of witnesses. This form of expression occurs in the politest writers. See Ilia. x. 133. Æneid. vii. 793. Andron. Rhodii Argonauticon, iv. 398. Appian, Pisc. i. 463. and Euripidis Hecuba, ver. 907.

long to applaud and congratulate us upon our victory; *let us lay aside every weight*¹, and the sin that doth so easily beset us²; let us throw off every impediment, as the competitors for the Olympic crown did, and that sin that would entangle and impede our steps, and prove the fatal cause of our losing the victory; *and let us run with patience the race set before us*; like those who ran in the Grecian stadium, let us, inflamed with the idea of glory, honour, and immortality, urge our course with unremitting ardour toward the destined happy goal for the prize of our high calling in God our Saviour, *looking unto Jesus the author and finisher of our faith*: as the candidates for the Olympic honours, during the arduous contention, had in view those illustrious and venerable personages from whose hands they were to receive the envied palm, and who were immediate witnesses of their respective conduct and merit; in imitation of them, let us Christians keep our eyes steadfastly fixed upon Jesus the original introducer and perfecter of our religion, who, if we are victorious, will rejoice to adorn our temples with a crown of glory that will never fade; *Who, for the joy set before him*³, *endured the cross, despising the shame, and is now set down at the right hand of God*: Jesus himself, to seize the glorious palm which his God and Father placed full in his view in order to inspirit him with ardour and alacrity, in the race he had set before him, cheerfully submitted to sorrows and sufferings, endured the cross, condemning the infamy of such a death, and in consequence of perseverance and victory, is now exalted to the highest honours, and placed on the right hand of the Supreme Majesty. *For, consider him that endured such contradiction of sinners against himself, lest ye be wearied and faint in your minds*⁴: consider him who conflicted with such opposition of wicked men all confederated against him, and let reflections on his fortitude prevent your being languid and dispirited; *therefore lift up the hands which hang down, and the feeble knees*.⁵ *And make straight paths for your feet, lest that which is lame*

¹ Ογκον αποδεμενοι παντα. A stadio sumpta similitudo: ibi qui cursuri sunt, omnia quæ oneri esse possunt, deponunt. Grot. in loc. Monet ut ογκον abjiciamus, quo vocabulo crassa omnis et tarda molis significatur. Beza.

² Ευπερίσλατον. Entangled by wrapping round. An allusion to the garments of the Greeks which were long, and would entangle and impede their steps, if not thrown off in the race. See Hallet, in loc.

³ Προκειμένης αυτα χαρας. The joy placed full in his view. In the Olympic exercises the prize was publicly placed in the view of the combatants to fire their emulation. The following note of Krebsius is very elegant. Elegantissima metaphora est vocis προκειμένης, e veterum certaminum ratione ducta. Proprie enim προκεισθαι dicuntur τα αδλα, sc. præmia certaminis, quæ publicè proponuntur in propatulo, ut eorum aspectus, certa quæ eorum adipiscendorum spes, certaturos alacriores redderet ad certamen ineundum, victoriamque reportandam. J. Tob. Krebsii Observat. in N.T. c. Joseph. p. 377. Lips. 1755. 8vo.

⁴ ἵνα μη καμῆτε, ταῖς ψυχαῖς ὑμῶν ἐκλυόμενοι. Hæc duo verba a palæstra et ab athletic desumpta sunt, qui proprie dicuntur καμνεῖν et ψυχὰς ἐκλυεσθαι, cum corporis viribus debilitati et fracti, omnique spe vincendi abjecti, victas manus dant adversario. — Neque dubium est quin Apostolus eo respexerit. Krebsius, p. 396.

⁵ Διὸ τὰς ὑποκειμένας χεῖρας καὶ τὰ παραλελυμένα γόνατα ἀνορθώσατε. Quemadmodum Paulus, ubi deestatur loquendi formulis ex re palæstricâ petitis; ita dubium

be turned out of the way: exert in the Christian race those nerves that have been relaxed, and collect those spirits which have been sunk in dejection: make a smooth and even path for your steps, and remove every thing that would obstruct and retard your velocity.

“The following distinguished passage in St. Paul’s first Epistle to the Corinthians (ix. 24—27.) abounds with agonistical terms. Its beautiful and striking imagery is totally borrowed from the Greek stadium. *Know ye not that they who run in a race, run all, but one receiveth the prize? So run, that ye may obtain. And every man that striveth for the mastery, is temperate in all things. Now they do it to obtain a corruptible crown; but we an incorruptible. I therefore so run, not as uncertainly; so fight I, not as one that beateth the air: But I keep under my body, and bring it into subjection; lest that by any means, when I have preached the Gospel to others, I myself should be a cast-away*: Know you not that in the Grecian stadium great numbers run with the utmost contention to secure the prize, but that only one person wins and receives? With the same ardour and perseverance do you run, that you may seize the garland of celestial glory. Every one, also, who enters the lists as a combatant, submits to a very rigid and severe regimen.¹ They do this to gain a fading chaplet², that is only composed of the decaying leaves of a wild olive, but in our view is hung up the unfading wreath of immortality.³ With this in full prospect I run the Christian race, not distressed with wretched uncertainty concerning its final issue.¹ I

non est, quin hic quoque respexisse eo videatur. Athletis enim et luctatoribus tribuuntur *παρειμεναι χεῖρες* et *παρὰλελυμένα γόνατα*, cum luctando ita defatigati, viribusque fracti sunt, ut neque manus neque pedes officio suo fungi possint, ipsique adeo victos se esse lateri cogantur. Krebsius, p. 392.

¹ Πας δὲ ὁ ἀγωνιζόμενος πάντα ἐγκρατεῖται. We have already noticed how rigid and severe this regimen was, and what temperance and continence [*ἐγκρατεία*] those who entered their names in the list of combatants were previously obliged to observe. Multa tulit fecitque puer, sudavit et alsit: Abstinitu venere et vino, says Horace. See *Æliani*, Var. Hist. lib. xi. cap. iii. p. 684. Gronovii Lug. Bat. 1731. and *Plato de Legibus*, lib. viii. pp. 139, 140. edit. Serrani. 1578. and *Eustathius ad Hom. Iliad* Ω. p. 1472.

² Φθαρτὸν στεφανόν. The chaplet that was bestowed on the victor in the Olympic games, was made of wild olive, the crowns in the Isthmian games were composed of parsley. These chaplets were fading and transitory. Δίδους καὶ τοῖς θυμαλικοῖς στεφανοῦ μεν οὐ χρύσου, ἀλλ’ ὥστερ ἐν Ὀλυμπία, κοτινῶν. *Plutarch. Cato, jun.* p. 1433. edit. Gr. Steph. 8vo. See also *Porphyrus de Antro Nympharum*, p. 240. edit. Cantab. 1655. *Philonis Opera*, tom. ii. p. 463. edit. Mangey. Τους γὰρ τὰ ἱσθμία νικῶντας οἱ Κορινθιοὶ τῶν σελίνων στεφανοῦσιν. Those who conquer in the Isthmian games the Corinthians crown with parsley. *Polyani Stratag.* lib. v. p. 376. edit. Casaubon. 1589.

³ Ἡμεῖς δὲ, ἀφθαρτὸν. With what ardour in the Christian race this glorious crown should inspire us is well represented by *Irenæus*. Bonus igitur agonista ad incorruptelæ agonem adiortatur nos. uti coronemur, et preciosam arbitremur coronam, videlicet que per agonem nobis acquiritur, sed non ultro coalitam. Et quantò per agonem nobis advenit, tantò est preciosior: quantò autem preciosior, tantò eam semper diligamus. *Irenæus*, lib. iv. p. 377. edit. Grab. The folly also of Christians in being negligent and remiss, when an incorruptible crown awaits their persevering and victorious constancy and virtue, is also beautifully exposed by *Justin Martyr*. See his *Apol.* ii. p. 78. edit. Paris, 1636.

¹ So we understand οὐκ ἀβέβαιον.

Mr. West renders it, in the illustration he has given
K K 2

engage as a combatant, but deal not my blows in empty air.² But I inure my body to the severest discipline, and bring all its appetites into subjection: lest, when I have proclaimed³ the glorious prize to others, I should, at last, be rejected as unworthy⁴ to obtain it. This representation of the Christian race must make a strong impression upon the minds of the Corinthians, as they were so often spectators of those games, which were celebrated on the Isthmus, upon which their city was situated. It is very properly introduced with, KNOW YOU NOT: for every citizen in Corinth was acquainted with every minute circumstance of this most splendid and pompous solemnity. St. Paul, in like manner, in his second Epistle to Timothy (ii. 5.), observes, *that if a man strive for mastery, yet is he not crowned, unless he strive lawfully*: He who contends in the Grecian games, secures not the crown, unless he strictly conform to the rules prescribed

“What has been observed concerning the spirit and ardour with which the competitors engaged in the race, and concerning the prize they had in view to reward their arduous contention, will illustrate the following sublime passage of the same sacred writer in his Epistle to the Philippians. (iii. 12—14.) *Not as though I had already attained, either were already perfect; but I follow after, if that I may apprehend that for which also I am apprehended of Christ Jesus, Brethren, I count not myself to have apprehended: but this one thing I do, forgetting those things which are behind, and reaching forth unto those things which are before, I press towards the mark, for the prize of the high calling of God in Christ Jesus: Not that already I have acquired this palm; not that I have already attained perfection: but I pursue my course, that I may seize that crown of immortality, to the hope of which I was raised by the gracious appointment of Christ Jesus. My Christian brethren, I do not esteem myself to have obtained this glorious prize: but one thing occupies my whole attention; forgetting what I left behind I stretch every nerve towards the prize before me, pressing with eager and rapid steps, towards the goal to seize the immortal palm⁵ which God, by Christ Jesus, bestows. This affecting passage, also, of the same apostle, in the second Epistle of Timothy, written a little before his martyrdom, is beautifully*

us of this passage; I so run, as not to pass undistinguished; and then adds the following note; *ὥς οὐκ ἀδηλως*, may also signify in this place, as if I was unseen, not unobserved, i. e. as if I was in the presence of the judge of the games, and a great number of spectators. West's Dissertation, p. 253. 12mo.

² *Ὁδῶ πικτεῦω, ὥς οὐκ αἶρα δερῶν.* This circumstance is often mentioned in describing the engagements of combatants; thus, Virgil has, *Entellus vires in ventura effudit.* Æneid. v. 443. *Vacuas agit inconsulta per auras Brachia.* Valerius Flaccus, iv. 302. *τρίς δ' ἡέρα τυφε ἐκδείων.* Iliad, γ. 446. See also Oppian. Piscat. lib. ii. ver. 450. Rittershus. Lug. Bat. 1597.

³ *Ἀλλοῖς κηρυξας*; proclaim'd, as a herald, the prize to others. A herald, *κηρυξ*, made proclamation at the games what rewards would be bestowed on the conquerors.

⁴ *Ἀδοκίμος κληνόμενος.* Be disapproved; be rejected as unworthy; come off without honour and approbation.

⁵ *ἡ ἀθάνατος στεφανία, τοῖς δὲ ἐμπροσθεν ἐπακτεσθόμενος, ἐπὶ σικωπῶν δίκων*

allusive to the above-mentioned race, to the crown that awaited the victory, and to the Hellanodics or judges who bestowed it. *I have fought a good fight, I have finished my course¹, I have kept the faith. Henceforth there is laid up for me a crown of righteousness, which the Lord, the righteous Judge, shall give me at that day: and not to me only, but to all them also that love his appearing.*" (2 Tim. iv. 7, 8.)

ἐπὶ το βραβειον. Every term here employed by the apostle is agonistical. The whole passage beautifully represents that ardour which fired the combatants when engaged in the race. Their spirit and contention are in a very striking manner described in the following truly poetical lines of Oppian, which happily illustrate this passage:

Ὡς δὲ ποδωκείης μεμελημένοι ἄνδρες αἰθλων,
 Σταδμῆς ὀρμηθέντες, ἀποσσυτοὶ ὦκα γούνα
 Προπρωτισταίνομενοι δολικὸν τέλος ἐγκονέουσιν
 Εἰξανυσαί πασιν· δὲ πόνος νύσση τε πελασσαί,
 Νικής τε γλυκυδάρον ἔλιν κρατος, ἐς τε θυρεῶρα
 Αἶξαι, καὶ καρπὸς αἰθλιὸν ἀμφιβαλεσθαι.

Oppian Pisc. lib. iv. ver. 101. edit. Rittershusii.

As when the thirst of praise and conscious force
 Invite the labours of the panting course,
 Prone from the lists the blooming rivals strain,
 And spring exulting to the distant plain,
 Alternate feet with nimble-measured bound
 Impetuous trip along the reflux ground,
 In every breast ambitious passions rise,
 To seize the goal, and snatch th' immortal prize.

Jones's Translation.

Instat equis auriga suos vincentibus, illum
 Præteritum temnens, extremos inter euntem.

Horat. Satyr. lib. i. Sat. i. 115, 116.

¹ Τὸν ΔΡΟΜΟΝ τέτελεκα. I have finished my RACE. The whole passage is beautifully allusive to the celebrated games and exercises of those times. Δρομος properly signifies a race. Theocritus, idyl. iii. ver. 41. Sophocles Electra, ver. 693. See also ver. 686—688. Euripidis Andromache, ver. 599. Euripidis Iphigenia in Aulide, ver. 212. Strabo, lib. iii. p. 155. edit. Paris, 1620. Xenophon's Memorab. pp. 210, 211. Oxon. 1741. So this word ought to be rendered. (Acts xx. 24.) *But none of these things move me, neither count I my life dear unto myself; so that I might finish my course with joy; τελειῶσαι τὸν ΔΡΟΜΟΝ μου:* finish the short race of human life with honour and applause. It is a beautiful and striking allusion to the race in these celebrated games.—In the fifth volume of Bishop Horne's Works, there is an animated discourse on the Christian race; the materials of which are partly derived from Dr. Harwood's Introduction to the New Testament, vol. ii. sect. 4.

CHAPTER IX.

JEWISH MODE OF TREATING THE DEAD.—FUNERAL RITES.

I. *Mosaic Law relating to the Dead.*—II. *Treatment of the Deceased.*—III. *Lamentations for them.*—IV. *Rites of Sepulture.*—V. *Notice of the Tombs of the Jews.*—VI. *Funeral Feasts.*—*Duration of Mourning.*

I. **BY** the law of Moses a dead body conveyed a legal pollution to every thing that touched it,—even to the very house and furniture,—which continued seven days. (Numb. xix. 14, 15, 16.) And this was the reason why the priests, because of their daily ministrations in holy things, were forbidden to assist at any funerals, but those of their nearest relatives; nay, the very dead bones, though they had lain ever so long in the grave, if digged up, conveyed a pollution to any who touched them; and this was the reason why Josiah caused the bones of the false priests to be burnt upon the altar at Bethel (2 Chron. xxxiv. 5.), to the intent that these altars being thus polluted, might be had in the greater detestation.

II. When the principle of life was extinguished, the first funeral office among the Jews was to close the eyes of the deceased. This was done by the nearest of kin, who gave the parting kiss to the lifeless corpse. Thus, it was promised to Jacob, when he took his journey into Egypt, that Joseph should *put his hands upon his eyes* (Gen. xlv. 4.); and accordingly we read that, when Jacob expired, Joseph *fell upon his face and kissed him*. (Gen. l. 1.) The next office was the ablution of the corpse. Thus, when Tabitha died, it is said, that they *washed her body and laid it in an upper chamber*. (Acts ix. 37.) This rite was common both to the Greeks and Romans¹, in whose writings it is frequently mentioned. In Egypt, it is still the custom to wash the dead body several times with rain water.

III. From the earliest antiquity it was also usual with this people to make very great and public lamentations for their departed friends. What a deep general mourning did Abraham and his family make for Sarah, and with what public solemnity was her funeral conducted! What lamentations did Joseph and his brethren the children of Israel, and the land of Egypt make, upon the decease of the good old patriarch Jacob! What a procession was formed, and with what august pomp were his remains carried out of the land of Egypt, to be deposited in the sepulchre of his ancestors! *All the servants of Pharaoh, the elders of his house, and*

¹ Lucan. *Electra*, verse 1143. Virgil. *Æneid*. lib. vi. 218, 219.

all the elders of the land of Egypt, and all the house of Joseph, and his brethren, and his father's house, went up: only their little ones, and their flocks, and their herds, they left in the land of Goshen. And there went up with him both chariots and horsemen; and it was a very great company. And they came to the threshing-floor of Atad, which is beyond Jordan, and there they mourned with a GREAT and very SORE LAMENTATION; and he made a mourning for his father SEVEN days. And when the inhabitants of the land, the Canaanites, saw the mourning in the floor of Atad, they said, This is a grievous mourning to the Egyptians! wherefore the name of it was called Abel-mizraim, which is beyond Jordan. And his sons did unto him according as he commanded them. For his sons carried him into the land of Canaan, and buried him in the cave of the field of Machpelah, which Abraham bought with the field for a possession of a burying-place of Ephron the Hittite before Mamre. And Joseph returned into Egypt, he and his brethren, and all that went up with him to bury his father, after he had buried his father. (Gen. l. 7—14.)

On the loss of dear and near relatives, and of amiable and affectionate friends, the grief of this people was violent and frantic. Tearing their hair, rending their clothes (which was prohibited to the high priest), and uttering doleful shrieks and piercing cries, were some of the expressions of it. Suetonius remarks this distinguished vehemence of the Jews in the expressions of their grief. In that great and public mourning, at the funeral of Julius Cæsar, a multitude of foreign nations, says the historian, expressed their sorrow according to their respective customs: but the mourning and lamentation made by the Jewish people exceeded all the rest—they continued about the funeral pile whole nights together.¹ The assembling together of multitudes to the place where persons have lately expired, and bewailing them in a noisy manner, is still retained in the East, and seems to be considered as an honour done to the deceased.²

It appears, also, from the Scriptures, that upon the demise of their friends, the Jews hired persons, whose profession it was to superintend and conduct their public and private sorrows, who, in funeral odes, mournful songs, and doleful ejaculations, deplored the instability of human condition, celebrated the virtues of the deceased, and excited the grief and lamentation of the survivors. This we learn from the following passages of the prophets: *Thus saith the Lord of Hosts, consider ye and call for the MOURNING WOMEN, that they may come, and send for CUNNING WOMEN, that they may come; and let them make haste, and take up a wailing for us, that our eyes may run down with tears, and our eye-lids gush out with waters.* (Jer. ix. 17, 18.) *Both the great and the small shall die in this land; they shall not be buried, neither shall men lament for*

¹ Suetonius in vit. J. Cæsaris. c. lxxxiv. p. 135. edit. variorum. Lug. Bat. 1662.

² Harmer's Observations. vol. iii. pp. 16—18.

them, nor cut themselves, nor make themselves bald for them. Neither shall men tear themselves for them in mourning to comfort them for the dead, neither shall men give them the cup of consolation to drink for their father or for their mother. (Jer. xvi. 6, 7.) Therefore mine heart shall sound for MOAB like PIPES, and mine heart shall sound like PIPES for the men of KIR-HERES: because the riches he hath gotten are perished; for every HEAD shall be BALD, and every BEARD CLIPPED; upon all the HANDS shall be CUTTINGS, and upon the LOINS sack-cloth. (Jer. xlviii. 36, 37.) So also the prophet Ezekiel: *Son of man, behold I take away from thee the desire of thine eyes with a stroke: yet neither shalt thou mourn nor weep, neither shall thy tears run down. Forbear to cry, make no MOURNING for the dead, bind the tire of thine head upon thee, and put on thy shoes upon thy feet, and cover not thy lips, and eat not the bread of men. So I spoke unto the people in the morning, and at even my wife died. (Ezek. xxiv. 16, 17, 18.)*

In the time of Christ and his apostles these mournful songs had musical accompaniments. The soft and plaintive melody of the flute was employed to heighten these doleful lamentations and dirges. Thus we read that on the death of the daughter of Jairus, a company of mourners, with players on the flute, according to the Jewish custom, attended upon this sorrowful occasion. When Jesus entered the governor's house, he saw the minstrels and the people wailing greatly. (Matt. ix. 23.) So Josephus informs us, that when it was reported in the city that he was involved in the general destruction of Jotapata, the intelligence immediately filled Jerusalem with the deepest sorrow. The particular families and relations of the deceased bewailed the death of their respective friends, but the death of the general (meaning himself) caused universal mourning. Some deplored the loss of their acquaintance, some of their relations, some of their friends, some of their brethren, but all men lamented the loss of Josephus! so that for thirty days together there was a public mourning in the city, and considerable numbers of people hired musicians to regulate and conduct their lamentations.¹ This custom still obtains among the Moors in Africa, and the Turks in Palestine. "At all their principal entertainments," says Dr. Shaw, "and to shew mirth and gladness upon other occasions, the women welcome the arrival of each guest, by squalling out for several times together, Loo! Loo! Loo! a corruption, as it seems to be, of Hallelujah. Αλαλη, a word of the like sound, was used by an army, either before they gave the onset, or when they had obtained the victory. The Turks to this day call out Allah! Allah! Allah! upon the like occasion. At their funerals also, and upon other melancholy occasions, they repeat the same noise (Loo), only they make it more deep and hollow, and end each

¹ Bel. Jud. lib. iii. cap. x. p. 232. Havercamp.

period with some ventriloquous sighs. The *αλαλαζοντας πολλα*, or wailing greatly (as our version expresses it, Mark v. 38.), upon the death of Jairus's daughter, was probably performed in this manner. For there are several women, hired to act upon these lugubrious occasions, who, like the *præfica*, or mourning women of old, are skilful in lamentation (Amos v. 16.), and great mistresses of these melancholy expressions: and indeed they perform their parts with such proper sounds, gestures, and commotions, that they rarely fail to work up the assembly into some extraordinary pitch of thoughtfulness and sorrow. The British factory has often been very sensibly touched with these lamentations, whenever they were made in the neighbouring houses." ¹ The Rev. William Jowett, during his travels in Palestine, arrived at the town of Napolose, which stands on the site of the antient Schechem, immediately after the death of the governor. "On coming within sight of the gate," he relates, "we perceived a numerous company of females, who were singing in a kind of recitative, far from melancholy, and beating time with their hands. On our reaching the gate, it was suddenly exchanged for most hideous plaints and shrieks; which, with the feeling that we were entering a city at no time celebrated for its hospitality, struck a very dismal impression upon my mind. They accompanied us a few paces, but it soon appeared that the gate was their station; to which, having received nothing from us, they returned. We learned in the course of the evening that these were only a small detachment of a very numerous body of *cunning women*, who were filling the whole city with their cries,—*taking up a wail-*

¹ Shaw's Travels, p. 305. 4to. 1738. The mourning of the Montenegrins bears a great resemblance to that of the oriental nations. On the death of any one, nothing is heard but tears, cries, and groans from the whole family: the women, in particular, beat themselves in a frightful manner, pluck off their hair, and tear their faces and bosoms. The deceased person is laid out for twenty-four hours, in the house where he expires, with the face uncovered; and is perfumed with essences, and strewed with flowers and aromatic leaves, after the custom of the antients. The lamentations are renewed every moment, particularly on the arrival of a fresh person, and especially of the priest. Just before the defunct is carried out of the house, his relations whisper in his ear, and give him commissions for the other world, to their departed relatives or friends. After these singular addresses, a pall or winding-sheet is thrown over the dead person, whose face continues uncovered, and he is carried to church: while on the road thither, women, hired for the purpose, chaunt his praises, amid their tears. Previously to depositing him in the ground, the next of kin tie a piece of cake to his neck, and put a piece of money in his hand, after the manner of the antient Greeks. During this ceremony, as also while they are carrying him to the burial ground, a variety of apostrophes is addressed to the defunct, which are interrupted only by mournful sobs, asking him why he quitted them? Why he abandoned his family? He, whose poor wife loved him so tenderly, and provided every thing for him to eat! Whose children obeyed him with such respect, while his friends succoured him whenever he wanted assistance; who possessed such beautiful flocks, and all whose undertakings were blessed by heaven! When the funeral rites are performed, the curate and mourners return home, and partake of a grand entertainment, which is frequently interrupted by jovial songs, intermixed with prayers in honour of the deceased. One of the guests is commissioned to chaunt a "lament" impromptu, which usually draws tears from the whole company; the performer is accompanied by three or four monochords, whose harsh discord excites both laughter and tears at the same time. *Voyage Historique et Politique à Montenegro*, par M. le Colonel Vialla de Sommières, tome i. pp. 275—278. Paris, 1820. 8vo.

ing with the design, as of old, to make the eyes of all the inhabitants run down with tears, and their eyelids gush out with waters. (Jer. ix. 17, 18.) For this good service they would, the next morning, wait upon the government and principal persons, to receive some trifling fee."¹ The custom, however, of employing music to heighten public and private grief was not in that age peculiar to the Jews. We find the flute also employed at the funeral solemnities of the Greeks and Romans, in their lamentations for the deceased, as appears from numerous testimonies of classic authors.²

IV. The Jewish rites of sepulture were not very dissimilar to those of the Egyptians, from whom they seem originally to have been derived. The Egyptian manner differed from the Jewish principally in the circumstance of their embalming their dead with spices and nitre, the various methods of performing which are minutely described by Herodotus, and Diodorus Siculus.³ The patriarch Jacob was embalmed according to the Egyptian process; his remains lay in nitre *thirty* days, for the purpose of drying up all superfluous and noxious moisture; and during the remaining *forty* days, they were anointed with gums and spices, to preserve them; which unction, it appears from Gen. l. 2, 3., was the proper embalming. The former circumstance explains the reason why the Egyptians mourned for Jacob *threescore and ten days*; the latter explains the meaning of the *forty* days, which were fulfilled for Israel.⁴

The funeral honours paid by the Jews to their deceased friends, particularly to persons of fortune and distinction, appear to have been the following: After washing the corpse, they embalmed it, by laying all around it a large quantity of costly spices and aromatic drugs⁵ in order to imbibe and absorb the humours, and by their inherent virtues to preserve it as long as possible from putrefaction and decay. Thus we read that Nicodemus brought a mixture of myrrh and aloes, about an hundred pounds weight, to perform the customary office to the dear deceased. This embalming was usually repeated for several days together, that the drugs and spices thus applied might have all their efficacy in the exsiccation of the moisture and the future conservation of the body.⁶ They then swathed

¹ Jowett's Christian Researches in Syria, p. 194.

² See Euripidis Phœnissæ, ver. 1521. Æschyli Septem contra Thebas, ver. 1030. Dion. Cassius, lib. lvi. p. 850. and lib. lxxiv. p. 1245. (edit. Reimar.) Eusebii Hist. Eccl. p. 449. edit. Cantab. 1720.

³ Herodotus, Euterpe, pp. 141, 142. edit. Wesseling, Amst. 1763. Diodorus Siculus, lib. i. c. 91—93. edit. Bipont.

⁴ Paxton's Illustrations, vol. iii. p. 249. 2d edit.

⁵ Matt. xxvi. 12. *For in that she hath poured this ointment on my body, she did it for my funeral, προς το εταφιασαι με, to embalm me.* The word does not properly signify to bury. The note of Beza is accurate. *Ad funerandum me; προς το εταφιασαι με.* Vulg. et Erasmus, *ad me sepeliendum, male.* Nam aliud est *θαπτειν* quam *εταφιαζειν*: ut *laqueis sepelire est sepulchrum condere*: *funerare vero pollincire, cadaver sepulchro manducandum prius curare.* Beza ad Matt. xxvi. 12. *Εταφιασαι est corpus ad funus et ornamentis sepulchralibus ornare.* Wetstein. in loc.

consuetudo, ut carissima capita, et quæ plurimum fierent cadavera, non semel sed, sed sæpius, pluribusque continuis diebus, donec exsiccato, et absorpto

the corpse in linen rollers or bandages, closely enfolding and wrapping it in that bed of aromatic drugs with which they had surrounded it. Thus we find that Joseph of Arimathea and Nicodemus *took the body of Jesus and wrapt it in linen clothes with the spices, as the manner of the Jews is to bury.* (John xix. 40.) This custom we behold also in the Egyptian mummies, round which, Thevenot informs us, the Egyptians have sometimes used above a thousand ells of filleting, beside what was wrapped about the head. Thus, when our Lord had cried with a loud voice, Lazarus come forth! it is said, the dead came forth, bound hand and foot in grave clothes. (John xi. 44.)¹ We learn from Scripture also, that about the head and face of the corpse was folded a napkin, which was a separate thing, and did not communicate with the other bandages in which the body was swathed. Thus we read, that the face of Lazarus was bound about with a napkin (John xi. 44.); and when our Lord was risen, Peter, who went into the sepulchre, saw the linen clothes lie, and the napkin that had been folded round his head, not lying with the linen clothes, but wreathed together in a place by itself lying at some distance from the rollers in which his body had been swathed, and folded up, exactly in the state it was when first wrapped round his head. (John xx. 7.)²

Besides the custom of embalming persons of distinction, the Jews commonly used great burnings for their kings, made up of heaps of all sorts of aromatics, of which they made a bonfire, as a triumphant farewell to the deceased. In these they were wont to burn their bowels, their clothes, armour, and other things belonging to the deceased. Thus, it is said of Asa, that *they made a very great burning for him* (2 Chron. xvi. 14.), which could not be meant of his corpse in the fire, for in the same verse it is said, *they buried him in his own sepulchre.* This was also done at the funeral of Zedekiah. (Jer. xxxiv. 5.) And it was very probably one reason why, at the death of Jehoram, the people made no burning for him like the burning of his fathers (2 Chron. xxi. 19.), because his bowels being ulcerated by his sickness, they fell out, and to prevent the stench, were immediately interred or otherwise disposed of; so that they could not well be burnt in this pompous manner after his death; though as he was a wicked king, this ceremony might possibly have been omitted on that account also.

The burning of dead bodies in funeral piles, it is well known,

vi aromatum omni reliquo humore, immo tabefactâ carne aridâ, et quasi aeneâ redditâ, diu servari possent integra, et immunia a putrefactione. Lucas Purgensis in Marc. xvi.

¹ Δεδεμένος... κειρίαις. Thavornius explains Κειρία by calling them ἐπιταφιοὶ δεσμοί, sepulchral bandages. Κειρία ἀπὸ τῆς σχοινία τὰ ἐνταφία. Etymol.

² He went into the sepulchre, and then he plainly saw the linen clothes, *μονα*, alone, or without the body, and *κειμένα* lying, that is, undisturbed, and at full length, as when the body was in them. The cap, or napkin, also, which had been upon our Lord's head, he found separate, or at a little distance from the open coffin; but *ἐντετυλιγμένον* folded up in wreaths, in the form of a cap, as it had been upon our Lord's head. Dr. Benson's Life of Christ, p. 524. Wrapped together in a place by itself; as if the body had miraculously slipped out of it, which indeed was the real fact. Dr. Ward's Dissertations, p. 149.

was a custom prevalent among the Greeks and Romans, upon which occasion they threw frankincense, myrrh, cassia, and other fragrant articles into the fire: and this in such abundance, that Pliny represents it as a piece of profaneness, to bestow such heaps of frankincense upon a dead body, when they offered it so sparingly to their gods. And though the Jews might possibly learn from them the custom of burning the bowels, armour, and other things belonging to their kings, in piles of odoriferous spices, yet they very rarely, and only for particular reasons, burnt the dead bodies themselves. We are told indeed, that the people of Jabesh-Gilead *took the bodies of Saul and his sons* (from the place where the Philistines had hung them up), *and came to Jabesh and burnt them there* (1 Sam. xxxi. 12.), but by this time their bodies must have been in such a state, that they were not fit to be embalmed; or perhaps they were apprehensive that if they should embalm them, and so bury them, the people of Bethshan might at some future time dig them up, and fix them a second time against their walls; and therefore, the people of Jabesh might think it more advisable to recede from their common practice, and for greater security to imitate the heathen in this particular. Amos also speaks of the burning of bodies (vi. 10.); but it is evident from the words themselves, and from the context, that this was in the time of a great pestilence, not only when there were few to bury the dead, but when it was unsafe to go abroad and perform the funeral rites by interment, in which case the burning was certainly the best expedient.

In some cases the rites of sepulture were not allowed; and to this it has been thought that there is an allusion in Job. xxvii. 19. It was the opinion of the pagan Arabs that, upon the death of any person, a bird, by them called *Manah*, issued from the brain, which haunted the sepulchre of the deceased, uttering a lamentable scream. This notion also, the late professor Carlyle thinks, is evidently alluded to in Job xxi. 32., where the venerable patriarch, speaking of the fate of the wicked, says:—

He shall be brought to the grave,
And shall watch upon the raised up heap. ¹

The Jews shewed a great regard for the burial of their dead; to be deprived of it was thought to be one of the greatest dishonours that could be done to any man: and therefore in Scripture it is reckoned one of the calamities that should befall the wicked. (Eccles. vi. 3.) In all nations there was generally so much humanity as not to prevent their enemies from burying their dead. The people of Gaza allowed Sampson's relations to come and take away his body (Judg. xvi. 31.); though one would have thought that this last slaughter which he made among them, might have provoked them to some acts of outrage even upon his dead body. But as he stood alone in what he did, none of the Israelites joining with him in his

enterprizes, they might possibly be apprehensive, that, if they denied him burial, the God of Israel, who had given him such extraordinary strength in his life-time, would not fail to take vengeance on them in that case, and therefore they were desirous, it may be, to get rid of his body (as afterwards they were of the ark), and glad perhaps that any one would remove such a formidable object out of their sight. Jeremiah prophesied of Jehoiakim, that he should be buried with the burial of an ass (Jer. xxii. 19.), meaning, that he should not be buried at all, but be cast forth beyond the gates of Jerusalem, exposed to the air and putrefaction above ground, as beasts are, which is more plainly expressed afterwards, by telling us, that *his body should be cast out in the day to the heat, and in the night to the frost.* (Jer. xxxvi. 30.) The author of that affecting elegy, the seventy-ninth psalm, when enumerating the calamities which had befallen his unhappy countrymen, particularly specifies the denial of the rites of sepulture, as enhancing their afflictions. *The dead bodies of thy servants have they given to be meat unto the fowls of heaven; the flesh of thy saints unto the beasts of the earth.* (Psal. lxxix. 2.)

V. The antients had not that indecent and unwholesome custom, which now prevails, of crowding all their dead in the midst of their towns and cities, within the narrow precincts of a place reputed sacred, much less of amassing them in the bosom of their fanes and temples. The burying places of the Romans were at a distance from their towns: and the Jews had their sepulchres in gardens¹, in fields, and in the sides of mountains. The graves in which they chose to be deposited, were commonly in solitary and unfrequented places.² Thus we read that the demoniac of Gadara, wore no clothes

¹ The modern inhabitants of mount Lebanon have their sepulchres in gardens. The Rev. Mr. Jowett, during his visit to Deir-el-Kamr, the capital of the Druses on that mountain, says, that while walking out one evening a few fields distance with the son of his host, to see a detached garden belonging to his father, the young man pointed out to him near it a small solid stone building, very solemnly adding, ‘*Kabbar Beity*—the sepulchre of our family.’ It had neither door nor window. He then,” (adds Mr. J.) “directed my attention to a considerable number of similar buildings at a distance; which to the eye are exactly like houses, but which are in fact family mansions for the dead. They have a most melancholy appearance, which made him shudder while he explained their use”.....^a Perhaps this custom, which prevails particularly at Deir-el-Kamr, and in the lonely neighbouring parts of the mountain, may have been of great antiquity, and may serve to explain some Scripture phrases. The prophet Samuel was buried in his house at Ramah (1 Sam. xxv. 1.); it could hardly be in his dwelling house. Joab was buried in his own house in the wilderness. (1 Kings ii. 34.)” Jowett’s Christian Researches in Palestine, p. 280.

² The following description of the Tombs of the Kings (as they are termed), which are situated near the village of Gournou, on the west bank of the river Nile, will illustrate the nature of the antient sepulchres, which were excavated out of the mountains. “Further in the recesses of the mountains, are the more magnificent Tombs of the Kings; each consisting of many chambers, adorned with hieroglyphics. The scene brings many allusions of Scripture to the mind; such as Mark v. 2, 3, 5., but particularly Isaiah xxiii. 16. *Thou hast buried thee out a sepulchre here, as he that heareth him out a sepulchre on high, and that he hath a habitation for himself in a rock; for many of the smaller sepulchres are excavated nearly half way up the mountain, which is very high. The kings have their magnificent abodes near the foot of the mountain; and seem, according to*

and abode not in any house, but had his dwelling among the tombs (Mark v. 2, 3. 5. Luke viii. 27.¹); delighting in these gloomy and melancholy recesses, as most friendly and congenial to the wretched state of his mind.² Josephus also states, that these sepulchres were the haunts and lurking places of those numerous and desperate bands of robbers with which Judæa was at that time infested.³ And a recent traveller, whose researches have thrown much light on the sacred writings, informs us, that these burying grounds frequently afford shelter to the weary traveller when overtaken by the night; and that the recesses are likewise a hiding-place for thieves and murderers, who sally forth from them, to commit their nocturnal depredations.⁴

Sometimes they buried their dead in fields, over whom the opulent and families of distinction raised superb and ostentatious monuments, on which they lavished great splendour and magnificence and which they so religiously maintained from time to time in their pristine beauty and glory. To this custom our Saviour alludes in the following apt comparison: Woe unto you scribes and pharisees, hypocrites! for ye are like unto whited sepulchres, which indeed appear beautiful outward, but are within full of dead men's bones, and of all uncleanness. Even so ye also outwardly appear righteous to men, but within ye are full of hypocrisy and iniquity. (Matt. xxiii. 27.) The following extract from Dr. Shaw's Travels beautifully illustrates this: "If we except a few persons, who are buried within the precincts of the sanctuaries of their marabouts, the rest are carried out at a small distance from their cities and villages, where a great extent of ground is allotted for the purpose. Each family has a particular part of it walled in, like a garden, where the bones of their ancestors have remained for many generations. For in these inclosures the graves are all distinct and separated, each of them having a stone placed upright both at the head and feet, inscribed with the name and title (2 Kings xxiii. 17.) of the deceased; while the intermediate space is either planted with flowers, bordered round with stones, or paved with tiles. The graves of the principal citizens are further

Isaiah xiv. 18., to have taken a pride in resting as magnificently in death as they had done in life—*All the kings of the nations, even all of them, lie in glory; every one in his own house.* The stuccoed walls within are covered with hieroglyphics. They cannot be better described than in the words of Ezekiel, viii. 8—10. *Then said he unto me, Son of man, dig now in the wall: and when I had digged in the wall, behold a door. And he said unto me, Go in; and behold the wicked abominations that they do here. So I went in, and saw: and behold every form of creeping things and abominable beasts, and all the idols of the house of Israel, portrayed upon the wall round about.* The Israelites were but copyists: the master sketches are to be seen in all the antient temples and tombs of Egypt."—Jowett's *Researches in the Mediterranean*, p. 133.

¹ See Capt. Light's *Travels in Egypt*, p. 206. Dr. Clarke's *Travels*, vol. iv. pp. 211, 212.

² Ὁν θυμὸν καλεῶν, πύλον ἀνθρώπων αἰεεῖνων. *Iliad*. Z. 302.

Γοι γὰρ νῦν αὐτὰς ἐκ δαμων οἰσῆσ' ἐγώ

Μα αἶψ' αὖτ' ὅσ' οἰκεῖσι παρακοποι φρενων. Euripidis *Bacchæ*, ver. 32, 33.

³ See Jacknight on Mark v. 3

⁴ Forbes's *Oriental Memoirs*, vol. iii. p. 102.

distinguished, by having cupolas or vaulted chambers of three, four, or more square yards built over them : and as these very frequently lie open, and occasionally shelter us from the inclemency of the weather, the demoniac (Mark v. 5.) might with propriety enough have had his dwelling among the tombs : and others are said (Isa. lxxv. 4.) to *remain among the graves and to lodge in the monuments (mountains)*. And as all these different sorts of tombs and sepulchres, with the very walls likewise of their respective cupolas and inclosures, are constantly kept clean, white-washed, and beautified, they continue to illustrate those expressions of our Saviour where he mentions the garnishing of sepulchres, and compares the scribes, pharisees, and hypocrites to whited sepulchres, which indeed appear beautiful outward, but within were full of dead men's bones and all uncleanness."¹ But though the sepulchres of the rich were thus beautified, the graves of the poor were oftentimes so neglected, that if the stones by which they were marked, happened to fall, they were not set up again, by which means the graves themselves did not appear; they were *αδηλα*, as St. Luke expresses it; they appeared not, and the men that walked over them were not aware of them. (Luke xi. 44.)²

It appears from the Scriptures, that the Jews also had family sepulchres in places contiguous to their own houses, and (as we have already observed) generally in their gardens. Such was the place in which Lazarus was interred; and such also was the grave in which the body of our Lord was deposited. Joseph of Arimathea, a person of distinction, by St. Mark called an honourable counsellor (Mark xv. 43.³), mindful of his mortality, had hewn out of the rock in his garden a sepulchre, in which he intended his own remains should be repositied. *Now in the place where he was crucified there was a garden, and in the garden a new sepulchre, wherein was no man yet laid.* When Joseph therefore had taken the body of Jesus, and wrapped it in a clean linen cloth, he carried it into the tomb which he had lately hollowed out of the rock (which was not a tomb, sunk into the earth like a cave, but what is called in Isa. xxii. 16. a *sepulchre on high*); and rolled a great stone to the low door of the sepulchre, effectually to block up the entrance, and secure the sacred corpse of the deceased, both from the indignities of his foes and the officiousness of his friends.

VI. A funeral feast commonly succeeded the Jewish burials. Thus after Abner's funeral was solemnised, the people came to David to eat meat with him, though they could not persuade him to do so. (2 Sam. iii. 35.) He was the chief mourner, and probably had invited them to this banquet. Of this Jeremiah speaks (xvi. 7.), where he calls it the *cup of consolation, which they drank for their father or*

¹ Dr. Shaw's Travels, 1785. first edition. Oxford, 1738. *

² Dr. Macknight *in loc.*

³ *Εὐσχημων βουλευτης*. This denotes that he was a member of the Sanhedrin. *Βουλευτης* is the word used for senator in almost every page of the Greek writers of the Roman history.

their mother; and accordingly the place where this funeral entertainment was made, is called in the next verse the house of feasting. Hosea calls it the *bread of mourners*. (Hos. ix. 4.) Funeral banquets are still in use among the oriental Christians.¹

The usual tokens of mourning, by which the Jews expressed their grief and concern for the death of their friends and relations, were by rending their garments, and putting on sackcloth (Gen. xxxvii. 34.), sprinkling dust on their heads, wearing of mourning apparel (2 Sam. xiv. 2.), and covering the face and the head. (2 Sam. xix. 4.) They were accustomed also in times of public mourning to go up to the roofs or platforms of their houses, there to bewail their misfortunes, which practice is mentioned in Isaiah xv. 3. and xxii. 1. Antiently, there was a peculiar space of time allotted for lamenting the deceased, which they called *the days of mourning*. (Gen. xxvii. 41. and l. 4.) Thus the Egyptians, who had a great regard for the patriarch Jacob, lamented his death *threescore and ten days*. (Gen. l. 3.) The Israelites wept for Moses in the plains of Moab *thirty days*. (Deut. xxxiv. 8.) Afterwards among the Jews the funeral mourning was generally confined to *seven days*. Thus, besides the mourning for Jacob in Egypt, Joseph and his company set apart *seven days* to mourn for his father, when they approached the Jordan with his corpse. (Gen. l. 10.) In the time of Christ, it was customary for the nearest relative to visit the grave of the deceased, and to weep there. The Jews, who had come to condole with Mary, on the death of her brother Lazarus, on seeing her go out of the house, concluded that she was going to the grave, *to weep there*. (John xi. 31.) A similar custom obtains to this day among the Mohammedans in the East, and also in Egypt.² We read no where of any general mourning for Saul and his sons, who died in battle; but the national troubles, which followed upon his death, might have prevented it. David indeed and his men, on hearing the news of their death, mourned and wept for them *until even*. (2 Sam. i. 12.) And the men of Jabesh-Gilead *fasted for them seven days*

¹ Harmer's Observations, vol. iii. p. 19.

² "We arrived" (at one of the villages of Elephantina, an island in the Nile) "just in time to witness a *coronach* or wailing for the dead. A poor woman of the village had that morning received the melancholy intelligence that her husband had been drowned in the Nile. He had been infested without her knowledge, near the spot where the body was found. ~~with several of her female friends~~ with several of her female friends, was paying the unavailing tribute of lamentation to his departed shade." (Richardson's Travels, vol. i. p. 355.) "One morning," says the same intelligent traveller, "when standing among the ruins of the antient Syene, on the rocky promontory above the ferry, I saw a party of thirteen females cross the river to perform the lugubrious dirge at the mansions of the dead. They set up a piteous wail on entering the boat, after which they all cowered up together, wrapt in their dirty robes of basken. On landing, they wound their way slowly and silently along the battlements of the walls of the antient town, till they arrived at their place of destination, when some of them placed a sprig of flowers on the grave, and sat down silently beside it; others cast themselves on the ground, and threw dust over their heads, uttering mournful lamentations, which they continued to repeat at intervals, during the short time I witnessed their procedure." (Ibid. vol. i. p. 360.) Mr. Jowett witnessed a similar scene at Manselout, a more remote town of Upper Egypt. Christian Researches, p. 162.

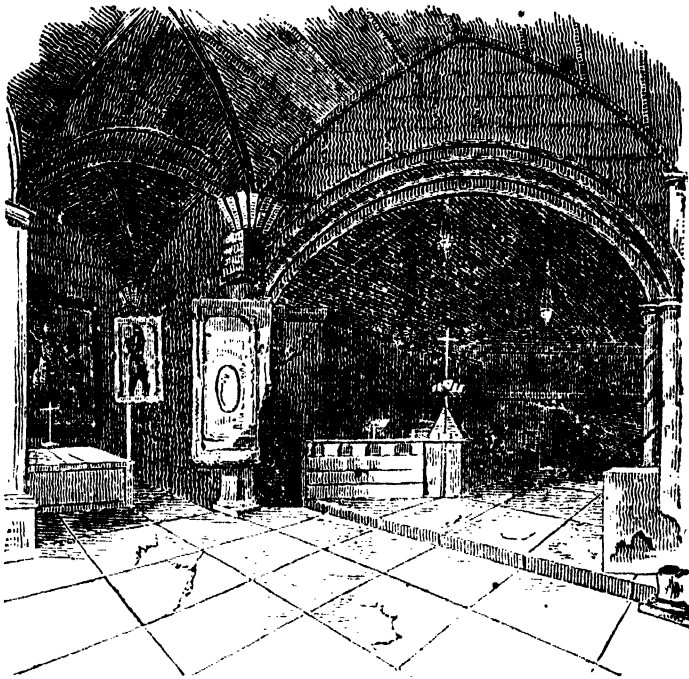
(1 Sam. xxxi. 13.), which must not be understood in a strict sense, as if they eat nothing all that time, but that they lived very abstemiously, eat little, and that seldom, using a low and spare diet, and drinking water only.

How long widows mourned for their husbands is no where told us in Scripture. We find it is said of Bathsheba, that *when she heard that Uriah her husband was dead, she mourned for him* (2 Sam. xi. 26.); but this could neither be long nor very sincere.

The Jews paid a greater or less degree of honour to their kings after their death, according to the merits of their actions when they were alive. Upon the death of their princes, who had distinguished themselves in arms, or who, by any religious actions, or by the promotion of civil arts, had merited well of their country, they used to make lamentations or mournful songs for them: from an expression in 2 Chron. xxxv. 25. *Behold they are written in the Lamentations*, we may infer that they had certain collections of this kind of composition. The author of the book of Samuel has preserved those which David composed on occasion of the death of Saul and Jonathan, of Abner and Absalom; but we have no remains of the mournful poem, which Jeremiah made upon the immature death of the pious king Josiah, mentioned in the last-cited chapter: which loss is the more to be deplored, because, in all probability it was a master-piece in its kind, since never was there an author more deeply affected with his subject, or more capable of carrying it through all the tender sentiments of sorrow and compassion, than Jeremiah.¹

¹ Jahn, *Archæologia Biblica*, pp. 289—302. Harwood's Introduction, vol. ii. pp. 129—152. Stosch, *Compendium Archæologiæ (Economicæ Novi Testamenti)*, pp. 121—132. Brünings, *Compendium Antiquitatum Græcarum*, pp. 388—400. The subject of Hebrew sepulchres is very fully discussed by Nicolai, in his treatise *De Sepulchris Hebræorum* (Aug. Bat. 1706. 4to.), which is illustrated with several curious plates, some of which however, it must be confessed, are rather fanciful.

APPENDIX.



Grotto at Nazareth, said to have been the House of Joseph and Mary.

No. I. GEOGRAPHICAL INDEX OF THE PRINCIPAL PLACES

Mentioned in the Scriptures, especially in the New Testament.

[Referred to, in page 11. of this Volume.]

*** On account of the very great uncertainty attending the ascertaining of the situation of the majority of places, incidentally mentioned in the Old Testament, this Index is chiefly restricted to the principal places and countries which occur in the New Testament. It is compiled from the labours of Calvert, Wells, Schleusner, Dr. Whitby, M. Anquetil, Dr. Hales, and other writers who have treated on sacred geography¹, and particularly from the *Travels in Palestine* of Dr. E. D. Clarke, Mr. Buckingham, the Rev. James Connor, the Rev. Wm. Jowett, and of Dr. Robert Richardson, who explored various parts of the East during the years 1816—1818, in company with the Rt. Hon. the Earl of Belmore, and of Colonel Leake in Asia Minor.

¹ The notices of the seven cities of Ephesus, Laodicea, Pergamos, Philadelphia, Sardis, Smyrna, and Thyatira, are derived from Smith's Survey of the Seven Churches of

ABANA, a river of Damascus, mentioned by Naaman. (2 Kings v. 12.) *Are not Abana and Pharpar, rivers of Damascus, better than all the waters of Israel?* Probably this river is a branch of that part of the Barrady, or Chrysorroas; which derives its source from the foot of Mount Libanus, towards the east, runs round Damascus, and through it, and continues its course till lost in the wilderness, four or five leagues south from that city.

ABARIM, Mountains of. See pp. 47, 48. of this volume.

ABEL, *Abel-beth-Maacha*, or *Abel-main*, a city in the northern part of the canton allotted to the tribe of Naphtali. Hither fled Sheba the son of Bichri, when pursued by the forces of king David; and the inhabitants, in order that they might escape the horrors of a siege, cut off Sheba's head, which they threw over the wall to Joab. (2 Sam. xx. 14—22.) About eighty years after, it was taken and ravaged by Benhadad king of Syria. (1 Kings xv. 20.) About two hundred years after this event, it was captured and sacked by Tiglath-pileser, who carried the inhabitants captive into Assyria. (2 Kings xv. 29.) This place was subsequently rebuilt; and according to Josephus, became, under the name of Abila, the capital of the district of Abilene.

ABEL-MEHOLOH was the native country of Elisha. (1 Kings xix. 16.) It could not be far from Scythopolis. (iv. 12.) Eusebius places it in the great plain, sixteen miles from Scythopolis, south. Not far from hence, Gideon obtained a victory over the Midianites. (Judg. vii. 22.)

ABEL-MIZRAIM (the mourning of the Egyptians), was formerly called the floor of Atad. (Gen. l. 11.) Jerome, and some others after him, believe this to be the place afterwards called Bethagla, at some distance from Jericho and Jordan west.

ABEL-SHITTIM was a town in the plains of Moab, beyond Jordan, opposite Jericho. According to Josephus, Abel-Shittim, or Abela, as he calls it, was sixty furlongs from Jordan. Eusebius says, it was in the neighbourhood

of Mount Peor. Moses encamped at Abel-Shittim before the Hebrew army passed the Jordan, under Joshua. (Numb. xxxiii. 49. xxv. 1.) Here the Israelites fell into idolatry, and worshipped Baal-Peor, seduced by Balak; and here God severely punished them by the hands of the Levites. (Numb. xxv. 1, 2. &c.) This city is often called Shittim only. (Antiq. lib. iv. cap. 7. and v. 1., and de Bello, lib. v. cap. 5.)

ABILENE. See page 16. *supra*.

ACCHO. See **PTOLEMAIS**.

ACELDAMA, a place without the south wall of Jerusalem, beyond the river of Siloam. It was called the Potter's Field (Matt. xxvii. 7. 10.), because they dug thence the earth of which they made their pots; and the Fuller's Field, because they dried their cloth there; but being afterwards bought by that money by which the high priest and rulers of the Jews purchased the blood of the holy Jesus, it was, by the providence of God so ordering it, called Aceldama, that is, the field of blood. (Acts i. 19. Matt. xxvii. 7, 8.)

ACHAIA, in the largest sense, comprehends Greece properly so called. It is bounded on the west by Epirus, on the east by the Aegean Sea, on the north by Macedonia, on the south by Peloponnesus. This seems to be the region intended when Saint Paul, according to the Roman acceptation mentions all the regions of Achaia, and directs his second Epistle to all the saints in Achaia. (2 Cor. xi. 10.) Thus, what is Achaia, in Acts xix. 21. is Hellas, that is, Greece. (Acts xx. 2.) Achaia, strictly so called, is the northern region of Peloponnesus, bounded on the north by the Gulph of Corinth, on the south by Arcadia, on the east by Sicyonia, and, on the west by the Ionian Sea. Of this region CORINTH was the capital.

ACHMETHA. See **ECRATANA**.

ACHOR, a valley in the territory of Jericho, and in the canton of the tribe of Benjamin, where Achan was stoned. (Josh. vii. 24.)

ACKSHAPH, a city belonging to the tribe of Asher. The king of Ackshaph was conquered by Joshua. (xii. 20.) Some writers are of opinion, that Ack-

Asia, pp. 205—276. Bishop Newton's Dissertations on the Prophecies, vol. ii. pp. 166—174. The Rev. F. Lindsay's Visit to the Apocalyptic Churches (in 1815), in the Christian Observer, vol. xv. pp. 190, 191. Lieut. Colonel Leake's Tour in Asia Minor, London, 1824. 8vo. See also Stosch's Syntagma Dissertationum Septem de Nominibus eisdem Urbium Asiae, ad quas D. Joannes in Apocalypsi Filii Dei Epistolas direxit. 8vo. Guelphwyti, 1757.

shaph is the same as Ecdippa, on the Mediterranean, between Tyre and Ptolemais; others, that Ecdippa is described in Josh. xix. 20. under the name of Achzib, אַחְזִיב. The Arabs call a place, three hours north from Ptolemais, Zib, which is the place where formerly stood Ecdippa. It is probable that Ackshaph and Achzib are but different names for the same town. Mr. Buckingham, who visited this place in January 1816, found it a small town situated on a hill near the sea, and having a few palm-trees rearing themselves above its dwellings.

ADMAH, or ADAMA, one of the five wicked cities destroyed by fire from heaven, and afterwards overwhelmed by the waters of the Dead Sea. (Gen. xix. 24.) It was the most easterly of those which were swallowed up; and there is some probability, either that it was not entirely sunk under the waters, or that the subsequent inhabitants of the country built a city of the same name on the eastern shore of the Dead Sea; for Isaiah, according to the LXX, says, *God will destroy the Moabites, the city of Ar, and the remnant of Adama.* (Isa. xv. ult.) Ἄρω το σπέρμι Μωαβ καὶ Ἀριῆ, καὶ τὸ καταλείπον Ἀδάμα.

ADAMYTIUM, a maritime town of Mysia, in Asia Minor, for which Paul embarked in his first voyage to Italy. (Acts xxvii. 12.)

ADRIA is mentioned in Acts xxvii. 27., where, it is to be observed, that when Saint Paul says, that they were tossed in Adria, he does not say in the Adriatic Gulf, which ends with the Illyrian Sea, but in the Adriatic Sea, which, according to Hesychius, is the same with the Ionian Sea; and therefore to the question, How Saint Paul's ship, which was near to Malta, and so, either in the Lybian or Sicilian Sea, could be in the Adriatic? It is well answered, That not only the Ionian, but even the Sicilian Sea, and part of that which washes Crete, was called the Adriatic. Thus, Ptolemy says, that Sicily was bounded on the east, ὑπο τοῦ Ἀδριου, by the Adriatic; and that Crete was compassed on the west, ὑπο τοῦ Ἀδριατικοῦ πελαγους, by the Adriatic Sea; and Strabo says, that the Ionian Gulf, μέρος ἐστὶ τοῦ νῦν Ἀδριου λεγομενου, is a part of that which in his time was called the Adriatic Sea. (Whitby.)

ÆNON, or ENON, signifies the place of springs, where John baptised. (John iii. 23.) It is uncertain where it was situated, whether in Galilee, or Judæa,

or Samaria, where Lubin places it, viz. in the half-tribe of Manasseh, within Jordan.

ΑΗΑΒΑ, a river of Babylonia, or of Assyria, where Ezra assembled those captives whom he afterwards brought into Judæa. (Ezra viii. 15.) It is supposed to be that which ran along the region of Adiabene, where a river Diava, or Adiava, is mentioned, on which Ptolemy places the city Abane or Aavane. This is probably the country called Ava (2 Kings xvii. 24. xviii. 34. xix. 13.), whence the kings of Assyria translated the people called Avites into Palestine; and where, likewise, in their room, they settled some of the captive Israelites. Ezra, intending to collect as many Israelites as he could, to return with him to Judæa, halted in the country of Ava, or Ahava, whence he sent agents into the Caspian mountains, to invite such Jews as were willing to join him. (Ezra viii. 17.)

AJALON, a city in the canton of the tribe of Dan, assigned to the Levites of Kohath's family. It was situated between Timnath and Beth-Shemesh, and is probably the city alluded to, in Josh. x. 12. There were three other cities of this name; one in the canton of Benjamin, another in that of Ephraim, not far from Schechem; and the third in the canton of Zebulun; the situation of which is not known.

ALEXANDRIA, a celebrated city of Egypt, built by Alexander the Great, A.M. 3673, B.C. 331, and situated between the Mediterranean Sea and the Lake Moeris. Alexandria at present exhibits no vestiges of its former magnificence, except the ruins that surround it, and which are of very remote antiquity. Under the Arabian dynasty, its splendour gradually declined with its commerce. From the neglect of the canals, which antiently diffused fertility through the surrounding country, and the encroachments of the sand, the city is now insulated in a desert, and exhibits no vestiges of those delightful gardens and cultivated fields, which subsisted even to the time of the Arabian conquest. The commerce of antient Alexandria was very extensive, especially in corn (Egypt being considered the granary of Rome), so that the centurion could easily meet with a ship of Alexandria, laden with corn, sailing into Italy. (Acts xxvii. 6.) Alexandria was the native place of Apollos. (Acts xviii. 24.)

AMALEKITES.—The Amalekites were

the descendants of Eliphaz, the first-born of Esau, by his concubine Timna; whereas the Idumæans were the offspring of a legitimate wife. On this diversity of origin was founded the rivalry which constantly existed between these two nations. In other respects they appear to have resembled each other, in their religion, their taste for the arts, and their commerce, which their situation between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean encouraged them to cultivate and extend. It is even conjectured that they were warriors and conquerors, and made a part of the shepherds who subdued Egypt, and reigned there during two hundred years. It was probably this brilliant success which caused them to be styled, by the Jewish historian, *the first of nations*. Annexed to this illustrious title is found, however, the fatal prediction: *their name shall be put out from under heaven*. In fact, perpetual wars against their neighbours, and especially the Jews, insensibly ruined them. Saul made a terrible slaughter of them, and was not permitted to save Agag their king, who was hewn in pieces by the prophet Samuel: David exterminated those who had escaped the former massacre. After this terrible execution, we meet no more with the name of Amalek but in the history of Esther; in whose time Haman, an Amalekite, to revenge an affront he imagined himself to have received from the Jew Mordecai, conceived the design of causing to be cut off, in a single night, not only all the Jews dispersed in the states of Ahasuerus king of Babylon, but even those who had been left in Judæa to mourn over the ruins of their country. This dreadful design recoiled on Haman, who was exterminated with all his family; and the Jews received permission to pursue and put to death their enemies wherever they could find them. They made a great slaughter of them, and since this event, nothing more has been heard of the Amalekites.

AMMON. See NO-AMMON, *infra*.

AMMONITES, a people descended from Ammon, son of Lot; called sometimes Ammanites. They destroyed the giants Zanzumim, and seized their country. (Deut. ii. 19, 20, 21.) God forbade Moses and Israel from attacking the Ammonites, because he did not intend to give their land to the Hebrews. Nevertheless, as they were the allies of the Canaanites, the Amorites had con-

quered great part of the countries belonging to the Ammonites and Moabites, Moses retook this from the Amorites, and divided it between the tribes of Gad and Reuben. Long after this, in the time of Jephthah (Judg. xi. 13.), the Ammonites declared war against Israel, pretending that Israel detained the country which had been theirs before the Amorites possessed it. Jephthah replied, that this territory being acquired by Israel in a just war, from the Amorites, who had long enjoyed it by right of conquest, he was under no obligation to restore it. The Ammonites being dissatisfied with this reply, Jephthah gave them battle, and defeated them.

The Ammonites and Moabites generally united in attacking Israel. After the death of Othniel, the Ammonites and Amalekites joined with Eglon, king of Moab, to oppress them. Some years after, about A.M. 2799, the Ammonites greatly oppressed the Israelites beyond Jordan; but, in 2817, God raised up Jephthah to deliver them. In the beginning of Saul's reign, A.M. 2909, B.C. 1195, Nahash, king of the Ammonites, having attacked Jabesh-Gilead, reduced it to a capitulation. (1 Sam. xi. 1.) Nahash offered no other conditions, than their submitting to have every man his right eye plucked out, as a reproach upon Israel; but Saul coming seasonably to the succour of Jabesh, delivered the city and people from the intended barbarity of Nahash.

David, having been a friend of the king of Ammon, after his death sent compliments of condolence to Hanun his son and successor; who, regarding these ambassadors as spies, treated them in a very affronting manner. David avenged the affront, subdued the Ammonites, the Moabites, and the Syrians, their allies. Ammon and Moab continued under the government of David and Solomon, and after the separation of the ten tribes, were subject to the kings of Israel till the death of Ahab. (2 Kings i. 1. A.M. 3107; B.C. 897.)

Jehoram, son of Ahab, and successor of Ahaziah, defeated the Moabites, A.M. 3109. (2 Kings iii. 4, 5, 6. &c.) But it does not appear, that this victory reduced them to his obedience. At the same time the Ammonites, Moabites, and other people, made an irruption into Judah, but were repulsed and routed by Jehoshaphat. (2 Chron. xx. 1, 2. *et seq.*)

The prophet Isaiah (xv. xvi.) threatens the Moabites with a misfortune which was to happen three years after his prediction; this probably had reference to the war of Shalmaneser against them, about A. M. 3277; B. C. 727. — After the tribes of Reuben, Gad, and the half tribe of Manasseh were carried captive by Tiglath-Pileser, A. M. 3264, B. C. 740, the Ammonites and Moabites took possession of the cities belonging to these tribes, for which Jeremiah reproaches them. (Jer. xlix. 1.) The ambassadors of the Ammonites were some of those to whom that prophet presented the cup of the Lord's fury, and whom he directed to make bonds and yokes for themselves, exhorting them to submit to Nebuchadnezzar; and threatening them if they did not, with captivity and slavery. (Jer. xxvii. 2, 3, 4.)

The prophet Ezekiel (xxv. 4, 10.) denounces their entire destruction, and tells them, that God would give them up to the people of the East, who should set their palaces in their country, so that the Ammonites should be no more mentioned among nations; and this as a punishment for insulting the Israelites on their calamities, and the destruction of their temple by the Chaldeans. These calamities happened to them in the fifth year after the taking of Jerusalem, when Nebuchadnezzar made war against all the people around Judæa, A. M. 3420 or 3421; B. C. 583.

It is probable that Cyrus gave to the Ammonites and Moabites, the liberty of returning into their own country, whence they had been removed by Nebuchadnezzar; for we see them, in the lands of their former settlement, exposed to those revolutions which included the people of Syria and Palestine; and subject sometimes to the kings of Egypt, and sometimes to the kings of Syria.

Antiochus the Great took Rabboth or Philadelphia, their capital, demolished the walls, and put a garrison into it, A. M. 3806. During the persecutions of Antiochus Epiphanes, the Ammonites manifested their hatred to the Jews, and exercised great cruelties against such of them as lived in their parts. (1 Macc. v. 6—45.) Justin Martyr says (Dialog. cum Tryphone, p. 272.) that in his time — the second century, — there were still many Ammonites remaining; but Origen, in Job, assures us, that in his days, they were only known under

the general name of Arabians. Thus was the prediction of Ezekiel accomplished.

AMORITES, a people descended from Amori or Amorrhæus, the fourth son of Canaan. They first peopled the mountains west of the Dead Sea. They likewise had establishments east of that sea, between the brooks Jabbok and Arnon, whence they forced the Ammonites and Moabites. (Josh. v. 1. Numb. xiii. 29. xxi. 29.) Moses wrested this country from their kings, Sihon and Og, A. M. 2553, B. C. 1451. The prophet Amos (ii. 9.) speaks of their gigantic stature and valour. He compares their height to the cedar; their strength to the oak. The name Amorite, is often taken in Scripture for Canaanites in general. The lands which the Amorites possessed on this side Jordan, were given to the tribe of Judah; and those which they had possessed beyond the Jordan, to the tribes of Reuben and Gad.

AMPHIPOLIS, a city between Macedon and Thrace, but dependant on Macedon, mentioned in Acts xvii. 1. Paul and Silas being delivered out of prison, left Philippi, went to Thessalonica, and passed through Amphipolis. This city had the name likewise of Chrysopolis.

ANATHOTH, a city in the tribe of Benjamin, memorable as being the birthplace of the prophet Jeremiah. (Josh. xxi. 18. Jer. i. 1.) According to Eusebius and Jerome, it was situated about three miles to the north of Jerusalem, though Josephus states it to be twenty furlongs. This city, which was assigned as a residence to the Levites of the family of Kohath, and also as one of the cities of refuge, has long since been destroyed.

ANTI-LIBANUS (Mount.) See pp. 44, 45. supra.

ANTIOCH, the metropolis of Syria, was erected, according to some writers, by Antiochus Epiphanes, according to others, by Seleucus Nicanor, the first king of Syria after Alexander the Great, in memory of his father Antiochus, and was the royal seat of the kings of Syria, or the place where their palace was. For power and dignity it was little inferior to Seleucia or Alexandria. Josephus says, that it was the third great city of all that belonged to the Roman provinces; it was called *Antiochia apud Daphnem*, or Antioch near Daphne, i. e. the village where her temple was, to distinguish it from fourteen other cities of the same name. It was

celebrated among the Jews, for the *jus civitatis*, which Seleucus Nicanor had given to them in that city, with the Grecians and Macedonians; and for the wars of the Maccabæans with those kings. Among Christians it is memorable for being the place where they first received that name, and where both St. Luke and Theophilus were born and inhabited. Modern Antioch and its vicinity were completely destroyed by a tremendous earthquake in the autumnal months of the year 1822.

ANTIOCH, of Pisidia, a city mentioned in Acts xiii. 14. Here Paul and Barnabas preached; but the Jews, who were angry at seeing that some of the Gentiles received the Gospel, raised a sedition against Paul and Barnabas, and obliged them to leave the city.

ANTIPATRIS, a small town which was situated in the road from Jerusalem to Cæsarea. It was formerly called Caphtarsalma; but being rebuilt and beautified by Herod the Great, it was by him named Antipatris in honour of his father Antipater. Hither Saint Paul was brought after his apprehension at Jerusalem. (Acts xxiii. 51.)

ANTONIA (Tower of). See p. 22. *supra*.

APHEK.—There are several cities of this name mentioned in Scripture, as,

1. APHEK, in the tribe of Judah. Here the Philistines encamped, when the ark was brought from Shiloh, which was taken in battle by the Philistines. (1 Sam. iv.) Probably this is the Aphekah, mentioned in Josh. xv. 55.

2. APHEK, in the valley of Jezreel. Here the Philistines encamped, while Saul and his army lay near Jezreel, on the mountains of Gilboa. (1 Sam. xxix. 1., &c.)

3. APHEK, a city belonging to the tribe of Asher, near the country of the Sidonians. (Josh. xix. 50. xiii. 4.) Perhaps this was the

4. APHEK, a city of Syria, one of the principal in Ben-Hadad's kingdom, in the vicinity of which the battle was fought between Ahab and Ben-Hadad, when the Syrians were beaten (1 Kings xx. 26., &c.), and as they retreated with precipitation into the city, the city wall fell upon them, and crushed 27,000. Probably, in this city Aphek, or Aphaca, situated in Libanus, on the river Adonis, stood the famous temple of Venus, the Aphacite. This city lay between He-liopolis and Babilus.

APOLLONIA, a city of Macedonia Pri-

ma, through which Paul passed in his way to Thessalonica. (Acts xvii. 1.)

ARABIA is a large country in western Asia, lying south-east of Judæa. It is distinguished into three parts, Arabia *Deserta*, *Petræa*, and *Felix*; but these divisions were not antiently known to the inhabitants of the East, nor are they observed in the Bible.

(1.) ARABIA DESERTA has the mountains of Gilead west, and the river Euphrates east: it comprehends the Ituræans, the Edomites, the Nabathæans, the people of Kedar and others, who lead a wandering life, having no cities, houses, or fixed habitations; but wholly dwelling in tents; in modern Arabic such are called Bedoweens. This country seems commonly to be described in Scripture by the word Arab, which signifies, properly, in Hebrew, the west, or people gathered together. They may have taken the name of Arabim, or western, from their situation, being west of the river Euphrates; and if so, their name Arab is prior to the settlement of Israel in Canaan. In Eusebius, and authors of that and the following ages, the country and greater part of the cities beyond Jordan, and of what they call the Third Palestine, are considered as parts of Arabia. (See a description of the horrors of traversing the great Arabian Desert, in pp. 55—56. *supra*.)

(2.) ARABIA PETRÆA lies to the south of the Holy Land. Petra was its capital. This country contained the southern Edomites, the Amalekites, the Cushites (who are very improperly called Ethiopians by most translators, and interpreters of Scripture), the Hivites, the Meonians, or Magrim, &c. These people are at present known under the general name of Arabians: but it is of consequence to notice the antient inhabitants of these districts, as they are mentioned in the text of Scripture. In this country were Kadesh-Barnea, Gerar, Beer-sheba, Lachish, Libnah, Paran, Arad, Hasmona, Obboth, Phunon, Dedan, Segor, &c., also Mount Sinai, where the law was given to Moses.

(3.) ARABIA FELIX lay still farther south: being bounded on the east by the Persian Gulf; on the south by the ocean between Africa and India; and on the west by the Red Sea. As this Arabia did not immediately adjoin the Holy Land, it is not so frequently mentioned as the former Arabias. It is thought that the queen of Sheba, who

visited Solomon (1 Kings x. 1.), was queen of part of Arabia Felix. This country abounded with riches, and particularly with spices.

The Scriptures frequently mention the Arabians (meaning those adjoining Judæa) as a powerful people, who valued themselves on their wisdom. Their riches consisted principally in flocks and cattle; they paid king Jehoshaphat an annual tribute of 7700 sheep, and as many goats. (2 Chron. xvii. 11.) The kings of Arabia furnished Solomon with a great quantity of gold and silver. (2 Chron. ix. 14.) They loved war, but made it rather like thieves and plunderers, than like soldiers. They lived at liberty in the field, or the desert, concerned themselves little about cultivating the earth, and were not very obedient to established governments. This is the idea which the Scripture gives of them (Isa. xiii. 20.), and the same is their character at this day. The inhabitants of Arabia, who dwelt there before Abraham came into Canaan, were descended from Ham. We find there Midianites, of the race of Cush, among whom Moses retired. Abimelech, king of Gerar, is known in the time of Abraham, and the Amalekites in the time of Moses. The Hivites, the Amorites, Kenites, Meonians, or Mahonians, extended a good way into Arabia Petræa; the Horim occupied the mountains which lie to the south of the land of Canaan, and east of the Dead Sea. The Rephaim, Emim, Zuzim, and Zamzumim (Gen. xiv. 5. Deut. ii. 8, 9., &c.), inhabited the country called afterwards Arabia Deserta, and peopled by the Ammonites, Moabites, and Edomites.

Arabia is generally stony, rocky, and mountainous; principally in parts now remote from the sea, though formerly adjacent to it. In the course of ages, a vast plain has been interposed between the mountains, now in the midst of the country, and the sea, which has gradually retired from them. This is now the most fruitful and best cultivated part; but it is also the hottest: for in the mountains the air is much cooler than below in the plains: they also contain plants and animals of different kinds.

Arabia Petræa, and Arabia Felix, were possessed by the descendants of Ishmael, who were more particularly known by the name of Arabians. According to the accounts of the Arabians

themselves, the first inhabitants of their country were descended from Cahtan or Joktan, son of Eber, and brother of Peleg; who, after the division of languages, peopled this peninsula of Asia. The second Arabians who succeeded these are the descendants of Ishmael, the son of Abraham and Hagar, who came and settled among the antient Arabians, and was father of the mixed Arabians, or Mota-Arabes, or Mosta-Arabes, or Ishmaelites.

The pure and antient Arabians were divided into tribes, as well as the sons of Ishmael. Some of these tribes still exist in Arabia, others are lost and extinct. The Ishmaelites formed twelve tribes, according to the number of the sons of Ishmael (Gen. xxv. 13, 14.), viz. Nebajoth, Kedar, Adbeel, Mibsam, Mishma, Dumah, Massa, Hadar, Tema, Jetur, Nephish, and Kedemah; but although these people very carefully preserve their genealogy, yet they cannot trace it up to Ishmael; they are obliged to stop at Adnan, one of his descendants; the genealogy, even of Mohammed, rises no higher.

Besides the descendants of Ishmael, who peopled the greater part of Arabia, the sons of Abraham and Keturah, of Lot of Esau, of Nahor, and others, dwelt in the same country, and mixed with, or drove out the old inhabitants.

The inhabitants of Arabia are divided into (1) those who dwell in cities, and (2) those who live in the fields and deserts: the latter abide continually in tents, and are much more honest than the Arabians who live in towns. Of these, some are Gentiles, others Mussulmans; the former preceded Mohammed, and are now called among them *Arabians of the days of ignorance*; the others who have received the doctrines preached by Mohammed, are called *Moslemoun*, or *Musulmans*, that is, believers. These are the people who conquered, and who still possess great part of Asia and Africa; and who founded the four great monarchies of the Turks, the Persians, Morocco, and Mogul; not to mention lesser kingdoms.

Arabia Deserta is called Hegiaz, and is become the most celebrated on account of the cities of Mecca and Medina being situated in it. Arabia Petræa is now known by the name of Hagar, or Hagiär; which signifies stone or rock: but Arabia Deserta, as understood by the antients, extended

much farther towards Syria and the Euphrates.

Joktan, the son of Eber, having settled in Yemen, erected a kingdom there, and was himself the first monarch. His son, Jarab, succeeded him; he introduced the Arabian language, which took its name from him, as did the whole country. The third king was Jaschab; the fourth was Abdalschams, surnamed Sobas: from him the old Sabæans derived their name. His descendants reigned in Yemen above 2000 years before the rise of Mohammedism.

The Arabians in general are cunning, witty, generous, and ingenious; lovers of eloquence and poetry; but superstitious, vindictive, sanguinary, and given to robbery (that is, of those not under the protection of some of their own people) which they think allowable, because Abraham, the father of Ishmael, say they, gave his son nothing. (Gen. xxv. 5, 6.)

The antient Arabians were idolaters: they worshipped a stone. The black stone, which has the repute of having been, *from time immemorial*, the object of their worship, is still to be seen in the Caaba of Mecca. They say, this stone was originally white, but has wept itself black on account of the sins of mankind. Herodotus says, that they had only two deities — Bacchus, and Venus Alilat, or Alilatta. Strabo tells us, that they adored only Jupiter and Bacchus; which Alexander the Great being informed of resolved to subdue them, that he might oblige them to worship him as their third deity.

The modern Arabians, descended from Ishmael, mention other names of antient deities adored in Arabia; as Lakhiah, whom they invoked for rain; Hafedah, for preservation from bad accidents in journeys; Razora, for the necessities of life; Lath, or Ablat, which is a diminutive of Abia, the true name of God; Aza, or Uza, from Aziz, which signifies the mighty God; Menat, from Menan, distributor of favours. It is very probable that they adored likewise the two golden antelopes, which are frequently mentioned in their histories, and which were consecrated at the temple of Mecca. The antient Midianites, among whom Moses retired, when he was received by Jethro, worshipped Bada and Hunda. Urotalt, mentioned by Herodotus, denotes, probably the sun; and Alilat, the moon.

The first of these words may signify the god of light; the second, the god or goddess, eminently. Since the promulgation of the Gospel, many Arabians have embraced Christianity; though by far the greater part continue, to this day, to profess the faith of Mohammed.

ARAM, fifth son of Shem, was father of the people of Syria, who, from him, are called Aramæans. The region, which in the Old Testament is denominated ARAM, is a vast tract extending from Mount Taurus south as far as Damascus, and from the Mediterranean Sea in an eastern direction beyond the Tigris into Assyria. Different parts of this region are called by different names; as — *Aram Naharain*, or Syria of the Two Rivers, that is, *Mesopotamia*; *Aram of Damascus*; *Aram of Soba*; *Aram Bethrehob*; and *Aram of Maacha*; because the cities of Damascus, Soba, Bethrehob, and Maacha, were in Syria; or at least, because Syria contained the provinces of Soba, Maachah, Rehob, &c. Homer and Hesiod call Aramæans, those whom the more modern Greeks call Syrians. The prophet Amos (ix. 7.) seems to say, that the first Aramæans dwelt in the country of Kir, in Iberia, where the river Cyrus runs; and that God brought them from thence, as he did the Hebrews out of Egypt; but at what time this happened is not known. Moses always calls the Syrians and inhabitants of Mesopotamia, Aramites. The Aramæans often warred against the Hebrews; David subdued them, and obliged them to pay him tribute. Solomon preserved the same authority; but, after the separation of the ten tribes, it does not appear that the Syrians were generally subject to the kings of Israel; unless, perhaps, under Jeroboam II. who restored the kingdom of Israel to its antient boundaries. (2 Kings xiv. 25.)

ARARAT, a celebrated mountain in the Greater Armenia; on which Noah's ark rested after the deluge. (Gen. viii. 4.) It is of stupendous height, and inaccessible to the summit, which is covered with perpetual snow. "Agridagh is the name given to this sublime mountain by the Turks; the Armenians call it Macis; but all unite in reverencing it as the haven of the great ship, which preserved the father of mankind from the waters of the deluge. The height of Ararat has never yet been measured

with any satisfactory degree of accuracy, though Captain Monteith of the Madras engineers has gone nearer to the mark, perhaps, than any other traveller. The following are the results of several trigonometrical observations which he made at Erivan, and was so kind as to communicate to me. From that place to the highest point of the loftiest head, he found 52,000 yards; and from the same spot to the minor head, 55,000 yards. This head, which is distinguished by the appellation, Little Ararat, while the higher part is called Great Ararat, is distant from the other, from peak to peak, 12,000 yards. These inaccessible summits have never been trodden by the foot of man since the days of Noah, if even then; for my idea is, that the ark rested in the space between these heads, and not on the top of either. Various attempts have been made, in different ages, to ascend these tremendous mountain pyramids, but in vain. Their form, snows, and glaciers, are insurmountable obstacles: the distance being so great, from the commencement of the icy region to the highest points. Cold alone would be the destruction of any person who should have the hardihood to persevere. On viewing Mount Ararat from the northern side of the plain, its two heads are separated by a wide cleft, or rather glen, in the body of the mountain. The rocky side of the greater head runs almost perpendicularly down to the north-east, while the lesser head rises from the sloping bottom of the cleft, in a perfectly conical shape. Both heads are covered with snow. The form of the greater is similar to the less, only broader and rounder at the top, and shews to the north-west, a broken and abrupt front, opening about half way down into a stupendous chasm, deep, rocky, and peculiarly black. At that part of the mountain the hollow of the chasm receives an interruption from the projection of minor mountains, which start from the sides of Ararat, like branches from the root of a tree, and run along its undulating progress till lost in the distant vapours of the plain."¹

AREOPAGUS. See pp. 126, 127. *supra*.

ARIMATHEA, a small town to which Joseph belonged who begged the body of Jesus from Pilate (Matt. xxvii. 57.) It was about thirty-six, or thirty-seven

miles distant from Jerusalem, and is now called Ramla. Its environs are said to be very beautiful.

ARNON (River). See p. 35. *supra*.

ASIDOD. See AZOTUS, p. 527. *infra*.

ASHER, canton of the tribe of. See p. 15. *supra*.

ASIA, one of the largest divisions of the Old World, is not mentioned in the Old Testament. In the New Testament it is always taken for Asia Minor, as it includes the proconsular Asia, which comprised the four regions of Phrygia, Mysia, Caria, and Lydia. In this proconsular Asia were the seven churches of Ephesus, Laodicea, Pergamos, Philadelphia, Sardis, Smyrna, and Thyatira.

ASKELON, a city in the territory of the Philistines, situated between Azoth and Gaza, on the coast of the Mediterranean or Great Sea, about 520 furlongs from Jerusalem. After the death of Joshua, the tribe of Judah took Askelon, which subsequently became one of the five governments belonging to the Philistines. (Judg. i. 18.) This place is frequently mentioned in the Scriptures. During the crusades it was a station of considerable importance, but is now a very inconsiderable place.

Assos, a maritime city of Mysia, according to some geographers, but of Troas, according to others. It is mentioned in Acts xx. 15, 14.

ASSYRIA, a country of Asia, the boundaries of which it is difficult to assign. It appears to have been situated between the Tigris and the Euphrates, inclosed between those two rivers, from the part where they begin to approach each other on leaving Mesopotamia to that where they join, not far from their mouth in the Gulf of Persia.

It must naturally excite surprise, that so small a country should have been able to send forth armies of a million or twelve hundred thousand men; a number which dismays the imagination, especially when we consider how many attendants they must have had exclusive of fighting men. But this kind of enigma is explained by the manner in which these vast armies were formed.

From the centre of a not very extensive domain a warlike band frequently issued, which poured upon the neighbouring country, carrying away the inhabitants, who, having no other resource, incorporated themselves with the conquerors. United, and allured

¹ See Sir R. Kerr Porter's *Travels in Persia*, vol. i. pp. 183, 184.

by the hope of plunder, they proceeded onwards, ravaging other lands, and increasing their army with the despoiled inhabitants, who in like manner joined them. Thus were formed those wandering hordes, which, under the name of Assyrians, subdued Mesopotamia, penetrated to Armenia, Media, and Persia, inundated Syria like a torrent, and carried devastation through Chaldaea, become the country of the Jews. As their conquests extended, the centre of their power became surrounded with deserts, and itself a desert. It is in vain that we seek the vestiges of the most famous cities, Nineveh for instance, which, from the descriptions that have reached us, have been justly enumerated among the wonders of the world.

It is in vain, likewise, that we inquire, what were the manners, religion, commerce, and usages of the Assyrians. They must have been those of all the various nations who united to form them; that is to say, they were conquerors and barbarians who allowed the greatest liberty in their police and their ceremonies, provided none of their people adopted laws or practices which might obstruct the success of their warlike expeditions.

It may be supposed, that a people in this unsettled state had neither the time nor the means to write annals which may serve as a basis for chronology, or furnish any certain dates. The memory of the principal facts could only be preserved by tradition, and it has been transmitted to us with not a few variations by the Greeks. At the same time that it is allowed, that we owe to the latter almost all the historical knowledge we possess relative to the antient nations of Asia, it must be admitted, that they have greatly disfigured it by accommodating to their own language and pronunciation the names of persons and divinities, and assimilating events to their own traditions in such a manner, that when we imagine we are in possession of authentic facts, we frequently discover them to be only Grecian fables. This observation may serve to point out the degree of confidence which ought to be reposed in the histories of these antient times.

Sketch of the History of Assyria; illustrative of the Prophetic Writings.

The empire of Assyria was founded by Ninus, the son of Belus; and, according to Herodotus, it continued five hundred and twenty years. (Herod.

lib. i. c. 95.) Ninus reigned one hundred and twenty-two years, according to some historians (Jul. African. and Eusebius in Chron.), though others make his reign to have lasted only seventeen years. (Diod. Sicul. lib. ii. c. i.—iv.) He enlarged and embellished the antient city of Nineveh, which had been built by Nimrod, many ages before his time. (Gen. x. 9, 10.) The commencement of his reign is fixed by Archbishop Usher to the year of the world 2737, B.C. 1267, during the period when Deborah and Barak judged the Israelites.

Ninus was succeeded by his queen Semiramis, who reigned forty-two years. She enlarged the Assyrian empire, which she left in a flourishing state to her son Ninyas, A.M. 2851, B.C. 1175. The Scriptures are totally silent concerning the subsequent history of that celebrated monarchy, and the successors of Ninyas, until the time of the prophet Jonah, who flourished A.M. 3180, B.C. 824; and even then they do not state the name of the monarch who filled the Assyrian throne. It is evident, however, that Nineveh was at that time a city of immense extent, whose inhabitants, like those of other great cities abounding in wealth and luxury, were extremely corrupt in their morals. But, at the preaching of Jonah, both sovereign and subjects repented and abandoned their evil ways, and thus for a time delayed the execution of the divine judgments. About fifty years after the time of Jonah, the Scriptures mention a king of Assyria, named Pul, who invaded the kingdom of Israel in the days of Menahem (2 Kings xv. 19. 1 Chron. v. 26.), who gave him a thousand talents of silver to engage him to lend him his assistance, and secure him on his throne. Pul is supposed to have been the father of Sardanapalus, the last king of the Assyrians, in whose reign the crimes of the Ninevites having risen to their utmost height, God raised up enemies to chastise them. Arbaces the Median, indignant at the effeminate and luxurious life which Sardanapalus led in his palace, conspired with Belesis, governor of Babylon, to shake off the yoke of so worthless a sovereign. After various engagements, they compelled him to retreat to Nineveh, where he expected that he should be able to defend himself a long time, because the city was strongly fortified, and the besiegers had not machines to batter the walls. But in the third year of the siege,

the river Tigris, being swollen with continual rains, overflowed part of the city, agreeably to the predictions of Nahum (particularly i. 8—10.), and broke down the wall for twenty furlongs. Sardanapalus, that he might not fall into the hands of his enemies, burnt himself in his palace, with his women and all his immense treasures. (Usher's *Annals*, p. 48. A.M. 3254. Athenæus, lib. xii. c. 12.) Arbaces and Belesis then divided the dominions of Sardanapalus: the former had Media, which he restored to its liberty; the latter had Babylon, where he reigned fourteen years: Nineveh they left to Ninus the younger, who was heir to the ancient kings of Assyria, and maintained the second Assyrian monarchy with considerable splendour; so that out of the ruins of this vast empire there were formed three considerable kingdoms, viz. that of Nineveh, that of Babylon, and that of the Medes. We shall briefly consider each of them, separately, according to the share they had in the affairs of the Jews.

Belesis, called Baladan by Isaiah (xxxix. 1. 2 Kings xx. 12.), is the Nabonassar of profane historians. He founded the Babylonian empire, of which he made Babylon the metropolis. He was succeeded by his son Merodach-Baladan, who cultivated Hezekiah's friendship, as appears from the embassy which he sent to the latter, to congratulate him on his recovery from sickness (2 Kings xx. 12.), A.M. 3291, B.C. 713. After this time the sacred historians are silent concerning the kings of Babylon, until the time of Esar-haddon, who is noticed in a following page.

The younger Ninus, who was left king of Assyria and Nineveh, is the Tiglath-pileser of the Scriptures (2 Kings xv. 29. xvi. 7. 10. 2 Chron. xxviii. 20.), A.M. 3257, B.C. 747. His empire appears to have been the most celebrated in the East; as Ahaz king of Judah sent to request his assistance against Rezin king of Damascus, and Pekah king of Israel. Accordingly, Tiglath-pileser advanced with a numerous army, defeated Rezin, captured Damascus, and put an end to the kingdom erected there by the Syrians, agreeably to the predictions of Isaiah (viii. 4.) and Amos. (i. 5.) He also entered the kingdom of Israel, conquered Pekah, and carried away part of the ten tribes beyond the river Euphrates. But Ahaz soon had cause to regret this unhallowed alliance: for Tiglath-pileser

exactd from him such immense sums of money, that he was obliged not only to exhaust his own treasures, but also to take all the gold and silver out of the temple. (2 Chron. xxviii. 20, 21. 24.) Ahaz became tributary to the Assyrian monarch, whose successors found abundance of pretexts for entering the kingdom of Judah, which they ultimately ruined and subverted.

Shalmaneser, the successor of Tiglath-pileser, came into Syria A.M. 3280, B.C. 724, and desolated the country of the Moabites, agreeably to the prophecy of Isaiah (xvi. 1.), delivered three years before. He then attacked Samaria, and completed the misfortunes of the Israelites who remained, by carrying them into captivity beyond the Euphrates. Thus terminated the kingdom of Israel A.M. 3285, B.C. 721. (2 Kings xvii. 3. xviii. 9—11.) Hezekiah, by the special protection of God, escaped the fury of Shalmaneser, to whom, however, he became tributary, and the Assyrian returned in triumph to Nineveh.

Shortly after these events, most of the maritime cities that were subject to the Tyrians revolted against them, and submitted to the Assyrians. Shalmaneser advanced to their assistance. These cities furnished him with a fleet of sixty or seventy vessels, manned by eight hundred Phœnician rowers. They were attacked by the Tyrians with twelve vessels only; who dispersed their fleet, and took five hundred prisoners. The Assyrian monarch did not venture to lay siege to Tyre; but he left bodies of troops in its vicinity to guard the river and aqueducts whence the Tyrians obtained their supplies of water. His precautions were frustrated by the besieged, who dug wells within their city. It was about this time that Isaiah denounced against them those judgments which are recorded in the twenty-third chapter of his prophecies. And Hezekiah seems to have availed himself of the troubled state of Phœnicia and the whole coast of the Mediterranean, in order to attack the Philistines. (2 Kings xviii. 7, 8.)

Sennacherib ascended the throne of Assyria A.M. 3287, B.C. 717, and was immediately involved in war, both in Asia and in Egypt. While he was thus engaged, Hezekiah shook off the yoke of the Assyrians, and refused to pay the tribute exacted from him by Shalmaneser. It appears from some passages of Scripture that Hezekiah had concluded

treaties of mutual alliance and defence with the kings of Egypt and Ethiopia against the Assyrian monarch. (Isa. xxx. 1. *et seq.* 2 Kings xviii. 24. xix. 9.) Upon Hezekiah's refusal of the tribute, Sennacherib invaded Judah with a mighty army, and captured the principal cities of that country. It is probable that he took Damascus in his progress. The pious monarch, grieved to see his kingdom pillaged, implored peace of Sennacherib on any terms he would prescribe; and gave him three hundred talents of silver and thirty talents of gold to withdraw. But the Assyrian, regardless alike of the sanction of oaths and of treaties, continued the war, and prosecuted his conquests more vigorously than ever. Nothing was able to withstand his power; and of all the strong places of Judah, none remained uncaptured but Jerusalem, which was reduced to the very last extremity. Isaiah, however, encouraged Hezekiah by promises of divine interposition and deliverance, and announced that the enemy would soon be obliged to return into his own country. (2 Kings xix. 20—34.) Accordingly, after Sennacherib had defeated the allied forces of the king of Egypt and of Tirhakah king of Ethiopia, who had advanced against him to assist Hezekiah, he returned into Judah with immense spoil, and renewed the siege of Jerusalem: but an angel of Jehovah slew one hundred and eighty-five thousand of his troops. (2 Kings xix. 35.) Sennacherib returned to Nineveh, where two of his sons, weary of his tyranny and savage temper, slew him while he was worshipping in the temple of Nisroch his god, and immediately fled into the mountains of Armenia. (2 Kings xix. 37. Tobit i. 21.)

It was during the first year of this war that Hezekiah fell sick, and was cured in a miraculous manner, and that the shadow of the sun went back ten degrees on the dial of the palace, to prove the truth of Isaiah's prediction of his recovery. The report of this cure having reached as far as Babylon, the king Merodach-Baladan sent ambassadors to congratulate Hezekiah on his recovery, and to acquaint themselves with the miracle. (2 Kings xviii. xix. xx. Isa. xxxviii. xxxix.) Hezekiah, flattered with the honour thus conferred on him, in the secret pride and vanity of his heart, shewed the ambassadors the vast treasure he possessed, and all the mag-

nificence of his palace. For this he was reproved by the prophet Isaiah, who predicted that all his riches would one day be transported to Babylon.

A.M. 3294, B.C. 710. On the death of Sennacherib, Esar-haddon, another of his sons, reigned in his stead. He is called Sargon by Isaiah. (xx. 1.) He reigned twenty-nine years, during which he waged war with the Philistines, from whom his general, Tartan, took Ashdod. He also attacked Egypt and Ethiopia (Isa. xx.), and Idumæa or Edom (Isa. xxxiv.), in order to avenge the injuries they had committed against his father Sennacherib; and at length he took Jerusalem, and carried Manasseh king of Judah to Babylon. (2 Chron. xxxiii.) This last war, however, happened long after those above related. Esar-haddon restored the glory of Assyria; and, in addition to his other victories, to the sceptre of Nineveh he united that of Babylon, having availed himself of the intestine troubles and commotions occasioned by the extinction of the royal family, to make himself master of that city, and annex it to his former dominions. Manasseh, having been restored to the divine favour after a deep and sincere repentance, obtained his liberty, and returned to Jerusalem, after a short captivity at Babylon. (Usher's Annals, A.M. 3327.)

Saosduchin or Nebuchadnezzar I. succeeded Esar-haddon, and reigned twenty years, according to Ptolemy. Having conquered Arphaxad king of the Medes (the Deioces of Herodotus, lib. i. cc. 101, 102.), he resolved to subjugate all the neighbouring territories. He therefore dispatched Holofernes into Syria and Palestine with an immense army; but that general was slain, and his army totally discomfited, before Bethulia, in the manner related in the apocryphal book of Judith.

A.M. 3356, B.C. 648, Saracus, otherwise called Chinaldon or Chyna-Ladanus, succeeded Saosduchin in the Assyrian throne. Having rendered himself obnoxious to his subjects by his effeminacy, and the little care he took of his dominions, Nabopolassar satrap of Babylon, and Cyaxares the son of Astyages king of Media, leagued together against him. He was besieged in Nineveh, which was taken by his enemies, who partitioned his dominions between them; Nabopolassar becoming master of Nineveh and Babylon, and Cyaxares having Media and the adjacent

provinces. (Usher's Annals, A. M. 3378, p. 62.)

ATHENS, a celebrated city of Greece, some time a very powerful commonwealth, distinguished by the military talents, but still more by the learning, eloquence, and politeness of its inhabitants. Saint Paul coming hither, A. D. 32, found them plunged in idolatry, occupied in inquiring and reporting news, curious to know every thing, and divided in opinion concerning religion and happiness. (Acts xvii.) The great apostle of the Gentiles, taking opportunities here to preach Jesus Christ, was carried before the judges of the tribunal, called the Areopagus; where he gave an illustrious testimony to truth, and a remarkable instance of powerful reasoning. (See an account of the AREOPAGUS in pp. 126, 127. supra.)

Some of the finest specimens of ancient art at Athens now adorn the British Museum. The reader, who is desirous of a full account of the modern state of Athens, and of its various monuments of former times, is referred to the Travels of Dr. Clarke, to the Classical Tour of Mr. Dodwell, and to Mr. Stuart's Antiquities of Athens.

ATTALIA, a maritime city of Pamphylia, and the chief residence of the prefect. It derived its name from king Attalus, its founder. Hither Saint Paul went from Perga in Pamphylia. (Acts xiv. 25.) It still subsists under the name of *Sattalia*.

AZOTUS, or **ASHDOD**, a city of Judæa, is situated between Gaza and Jamnia, or Jafnia, on the summit of a hill, which is surrounded by a pleasant plain. Here the ark of Jehovah triumphed over the Philistine idol Dagon (1 Sam. v. 2.), and Philip the Evangelist was found, after he had baptised the Ethiopian eunuch. (Acts viii. 40.) It is at present an inconsiderable place, and in its vicinity are numerous reliques of antiquity.

BABYLON, the metropolis of Chaldaea, began to be built at the same time as the tower of Babel, and both were left unfinished at the confusion of tongues. (Gen. xi. 4—8.)

The earliest notice of Babylon in profane history is, that Belus II. who is frequently confounded with Belus I. or Nimrod, built the tower of Belus, at Babylon, where he was buried, and had a temple dedicated to him, which the Chaldæans, or Babylonian priests, used

for an observatory. And the astronomical observations which Alexander found at Babylon, and sent to Aristotle, are said to have been continued for 1903 years back, which would bring their commencement to B. C. 2230, the most likely date of the accession of Belus II.

Herodotus, who visited Babylon, takes no notice of its founder, or of its antiquity: he only tells us, that it was principally improved by two queens, Semiramis and Nitocris, who strengthened its fortifications, guarded it against inundations, and improved and adorned it; and that one of the gates of Babylon was called the Gate of Semiramis. Nitocris appears to have been the queen of Nebuchadnezzar, who was regent during his distraction, and completed those great works which he began; and Semiramis lived only five generations, or 166 years, before Nitocris, and was therefore most probably the wife of Nabonassar, king of Babylon, who began to reign B. C. 747. It is not indeed likely that Babylon should grow great, till the decline of her rival Nineveh.

The testimony of Herodotus, which is of considerable weight, refutes the fiction of Ctesias, followed by Diodorus and Justin, that Semiramis, the builder of the immense walls of Babylon, was the wife of Ninus II. the second founder of Nineveh. Moses Chorenensis, in his Armenian History, with more probability, relates, that "Semiramis built a city and palace in the most fruitful and pleasant part of Armenia, whither she resorted to spend the summer season, and resided the rest of the year at Nineveh." She might perhaps have contributed to finish the walls of Nineveh after her husband's death; for Suidas relates, that "Semiramis, the first Assyrian queen, walled Nineveh about, and called it Babylon, changing its name." (Vocæ Σεμπαυς.) But from what authority does not appear. The change of name is improbable.

The city of Babylon was originally built by Nimrod, along with the tower of Babel, on the western bank of the Euphrates. (Gen. x. 10. xi. 4.) At first it was probably but small; but was afterwards enlarged and improved by Belus, Semiramis, Nebuchadnezzar, and his queen, whom Herodotus calls Nitocris, until it became the wonder of the world.

According to Herodotus, Babylon was a perfect square, each side of which

was 120 stadia, and of course its circuit 480 stadia, the same as that of Nineveh; but its area was considerably greater. The walls were 200 royal cubits high, and 50 wide. On the top were erected small watch-towers, of one story high, leaving a space between them through which a chariot and four horses might pass and turn. In the circumference of the wall, at different intervals, were a hundred massy gates of brass, whose hinges and frames were of the same metal. The whole was surrounded by a wide and deep trench, full of water. Of the earth dug out of the trench bricks were made, which were baked in a furnace, and when laid, were cemented with hot bitumen.

This circuit of 480 stadia is reckoned "enormous and improbable," by Major Rennel (*Mem. on the Geography of Herodotus*, p. 355.); and he prefers the lower reports of Clitarchus, who accompanied Alexander, 365 stadia; or of Diodorus, from Ctesias, 360 stadia, supposing that the present numbers of Herodotus are corrupt. (pp. 340. 363.) But of this there is no evidence; rather the contrary. For Pliny and Solinus both agree with Herodotus, reckoning the circuit 60 Roman miles, at 8 stadia to a mile. And surely Herodotus, who visited Babylon above a century before Clitarchus, and near three centuries before the time of Diodorus, and is a more credible witness than Ctesias, is more to be regarded, especially as he visited it earlier, and therefore in a more unimpaired state; and appears to have surveyed it with much attention.

Indeed, a strong presumptive argument of the fidelity of the report of Herodotus, is the sameness of the dimensions of Nineveh and Babylon. The distinguishing trait in Nebuchadnezzar's character was inordinate pride, which occasioned his humiliation. (*Dan. iv. 29—31.*) He wished to surpass Nineveh, the greatest city in the world; which contained $150 + 90 = 13,500$ square stadia, within its walls; but the walls of Babylon contained $120 + 120 = 14,400$ square stadia; or 900 more than the former. The walls too were twice as high; and if the towers thereon were not as numerous (only two hundred and fifty, according to Diodorus), it was only because the city was defended on the western side by deep and exten-

sive morasses, which rendered also fewer gates and communications with the country necessary on that side. Thus, when Alexander, after his return from India, in order to avoid the evils foretold by the soothsayers, if he entered the city on the eastern side, wished to have entered by the west, he was compelled, by the marshes and morasses on that side, to relinquish the attempt: as we learn from Arrian. (lib. 7.) And of the principal gates of the city, we may collect from Herodotus (lib. 2.), that the gate of Ninus, or Nineveh, fronted the north; the gate of Chaldæa, the south; and the gates of Semiramis, Belus, and Cissia, or Susa, the east, proceeding from north to south.¹

The magnificence and splendour of Babylon, after its enlargement and improvement by Nebuchadnezzar, when it became one of the wonders of the world, is well expressed by his arrogant boast: "Is not this great Babylon, which I have built for the house [or capital] of my kingdom, by the might of my power, and for the honour of my majesty?" (*Dan. iv. 30.*) It contained many streets, adorned with houses, three or four stories high; and these furnished with spacious parks and gardens. Among its curiosities, the most celebrated were, 1. The tower and temple of Belus, on the western side of the Euphrates, which ran through the centre of the city, from north to south; 2. The strong and spacious palace of Nebuchadnezzar, which formed the citadel; and, 3. The hanging gardens.

1. The tower of Belus was of a pyramidal form, somewhat loftier, but less massy, than the pyramids of Egypt. It consisted of eight stories, of which the lowest was a stadium in breadth (or 500 feet), and it rose to the same altitude. On the summit, according to Diodorus, was erected a statue of Belus, 40 feet high: but Herodotus, when he visited Babylon, found no statue there. This intelligent traveller, however, was informed by the Chaldæans, that there formerly stood in the temple of Belus adjoining a statue of solid gold, twelve cubits high, which was spared by Darius Hystaspes, but afterwards was taken away by Xerxes, who slew the priest that forbade him to remove it.² Might not this have been the identical "golden image," made by Nebuchadnezzar,

¹ See Rennel's *Map of Babylon*, p. 335.

² Herodotus, 1. § 182.

in all the pride of conquest, which he set up as an object of idolatrous worship to his subjects, recorded by the prophet Daniel? (iii. 1.) It was evidently distinct from the statue or image of Jupiter Belus, noticed by Herodotus and Diodorus; and was designed to represent Nebuchadnezzar himself or the genius of his empire, according to Jerome, supported by Daniel:—" *Thou art this head of gold*" (Dan. ii. 38.); this arrogant monarch having made not only the head, but the whole image of gold, prefiguring the stability and permanency of his empire, in opposition to the succession of the four monarchies, signified by the image in his dream compounded of various metals. And the height of the image, twelve cubits, mentioned by the Chaldeans, well accorded with the breadth, "six cubits," noticed in Scripture (perhaps, with the arms extended). For the height, "sixty cubits," being evidently disproportionate to its breadth, must have included the elevation of the pillar, or pedestal on which it stood.

Both the tower and the temple of Belus (the former of which probably stood on the site of the tower of Babel Gen. xi. 4.), were inclosed within a square court of two stadia in length, having gates of brass, which were still subsisting in the time of Herodotus. It fronted, probably, the middle eastern gate of Belus.

2. The royal palace and citadel were spacious and strongly fortified. The former was a square of five stadia in circuit. It was contiguous to the citadel, called by Berosus, "Borsippon," and by Strabo, "Borsippa," which was a square of 15 stadia. These names are evidently derived from the Punic, "Byrsa, or Bursa;" or from the Hebrew, "Bosrah;" all signifying "a fortress;" and they are still retained, with some slight variation, by the natives: for Niebuhr observed a ruin on the west side of the river, which his guide called Birs; where, according to the

tradition of the country, formerly stood Nimrod's palace.¹

5. The celebrated hanging gardens, also contiguous to the royal palace, were built by Nebuchadnezzar to gratify his wife, who was a native of Media, a mountainous country, with the resemblance of her own, in the level country of Babylon. According to Diodorus, they formed a square of 400 feet (about $5\frac{1}{2}$ acres) supported by 20 walls, eleven feet asunder, and 50 cubits high, commanding an extensive view over the walls. Trees of various kinds were planted therein, some of considerable size, not less than eight cubits in girth, according to Curtius. And Strabo mentions a contrivance to prevent the large roots from injuring the superstructure, by building vast hollow piers, which were filled with earth to receive them. These trees, modern travellers inform us, have been perpetuated in the same place, notwithstanding the sinking of the terraces, by the mouldering of the piers that supported them. And Niebuhr observed there trees of a particular kind, some very antient, which have been left untouched by the inhabitants; whereas, from the Gulf of Persia to that neighbourhood, no other kinds are to be found than date and fruit trees.²

The Scriptures are totally silent concerning these celebrated gardens: but they mention the willows which were planted on the banks of the rivers of Babylon. Isaiah (xv. 7.) describing in prophetic language the captivity of the Moabites by Nebuchadnezzar, says, that *they shall be carried away to the valley of willows*. The territory surrounding the ruins of antient Babylon is, at present, composed chiefly of plains; whose soil is rich, and the river banks are still hoary with reeds, and covered with the grey ozier willows, on which the captives of Israel suspended their harps, and refused to be comforted, while their conquerors tauntingly commanded them to sing the songs of Zion.³

"By the waters of Babylon we sat down and wept,
When we remembered thee, O Sion.
We hanged our harps upon the willows,
In the midst thereof. For there,

¹ Tom. ii. p. 236. ² Dr. Hales's Analysis of Chronology, vol. i. pp. 453—456.

³ Sir R. K. Porter's Travels in Georgia, Persia, &c. vol. ii. p. 297.

They that carried us away captive required of us
A song; and they that wasted us, required
Mirth.—‘Sing us one of the songs of Sion.’
How shall we sing THE LORD’S song in a strange land?”

Psalm cxxxvii.

The prophet Isaiah also, describing the calamities that were to be inflicted on Babylon by Cyrus, calls this city *the desert of the sea*. Jeremiah, to the same purport says (li. 36. 42.), *I will dry up the sea of Babylon and make her springs dry. — The sea is come up upon her. She is covered with the multitude of the wives thereof*. Megasthenes¹ states, that Babylon was built in a place which had before so greatly abounded with water, that it was called *the sea*.

Babylon was very advantageously situated both in respect to commerce and as a naval power. It was open to the Persian Gulph by the Euphrates, which was navigable by large vessels; and being joined to the Tigris ^{above} Babylon, by the canal called *Naharmalca*, or the Royal River, supplied the city with the produce of the whole country to the north of it, as far as the Euxine and Caspian Seas.² Semiramis was the foundress of this part also of the Babylonian greatness. She improved the navigation of the Euphrates³, and is said to have had a fleet of three thousand gallees.⁴ We are not to wonder that, in later times, we hear little of the commerce and naval power of Babylon: for, after the capture of the city by Cyrus, the Euphrates was not only rendered less fit for navigation by being diverted from its course, and left to spread over the country, but the Persian monarchs, residing in their own country, in order to prevent any invasion by sea on that part of their empire, purposely obstructed the navigation of both rivers by making cataracts in them⁵, that is, by raising dams across the channel, and making artificial falls in them, so that no vessel of any size or force could possibly come up. Alexander began to restore the navigation of the rivers by demolishing the cataracts upon the Tigris, as far up as Seleucia⁶, but he did not live to complete his great designs; those upon

the Euphrates still continued. Ammianus Marcellinus⁷ mentions them as subsisting in his time. The prophet Isaiah (xliii. 14. Bp. Lowth’s translation) speaks of the *Chaldeans exulting in their ships*; which, Bp. L. remarks, he might justly do, in his time, though afterwards they had no foundation for any such boast.⁸

Babylon rapidly declined during the Persian dynasty: Darius Hystaspes broke down the walls, and took away the gates, which Cyrus had spared. Alexander the Great designed to rebuild the temple of Belus, which had gone to decay; and actually employed ten thousand labourers for two months in removing the rubbish; but the attempt was rendered abortive, by his premature death, in the flower of his age, and pride of conquest. Seleucus Nicator, his successor in the kingdom of Syria, dismantled and spoiled Babylon, to build Seleucia in its neighbourhood, to which he transplanted the inhabitants; and in Strabo’s time, about the Christian era, “the greater part of Babylon was become a desert;” which the Parthian kings converted into a park, where they took the recreation of hunting, in Jerome’s time, A. D. 540. Its ruins are now the haunts of lions and other beasts of prey. Thus gradually have been fulfilled the predictions of Scripture:—“Babylon, the beauty of kingdoms, the glory of the pride of the Chaldeans, shall become as Sodom and Gomorrah, which God overthrew. It shall never be re-established, neither shall it be inhabited from generation to generation. The Arab shall not pitch his tent there, nor shall the shepherd make his fold there: the wild beasts of the desert shall lie there, and howling monsters shall fill their houses:—for her time is near to come, and her days shall not be prolonged.” (Isaiah xiii. 19—22.)⁹

The remains of ancient Babylon, as

¹ In Eusebius De Præp. Evang. lib. ix. c. 41.

² Herod. lib. i. c. 194.

³ Huët, Hist. du Commerce, ch. xi.

⁴ Arrian. Hist. lib. vii.

⁵ Bp. Lowth, on Isa. xliii. 14.

⁶ For an account of the present state of the ruins of ancient Babylon, see Mr. Rich’s *Two Months on the Ruins of Babylon*, and particularly Sir R. K. Porter’s *Travels in*

⁷ Herod. lib. i. c. 184. Strabo, l. xvi.

⁸ Strabo, *ibid*.

⁹ Hist. lib. xxiv. c. 1.

described by recent travellers, are so vast, that the whole could never be suspected of having been the work of human hands, were it not for the layers of bricks which are found therein. They are fire-baked, and cemented with zepht, or bitumen; between each layer are found ozers. Here are found those large and thick bricks imprinted with unknown characters, specimens of which are preserved in the British Museum, in the Museum of the East-India Company, and in other depositories of antiquities. The composition of these bricks corresponds exactly with the account given by the sacred historian of the builders of Babel. *Let us make brick* (said they), *and burn them thoroughly. And they had brick for stone, and slime had they for mortar.* (Gen. xi. 3.)

The name of Babylon was mystically given to Rome by the apostle Peter, as we have shewn at length in the critical preface to his first Epistle.

Sketch of the History of the Babylonian or Chaldean Empire, to illustrate the Predictions of the Prophets.

A. M. 5398, B. C. 606. Nabopolassar having associated his son Nebuchadnezzar with him in the empire, sent him to reduce the provinces of Syria and Palestine, which had revolted from him. In his way thither, the young prince defeated the army of Pharaoh Necho king of Egypt, and recaptured Carchemish: (Jer. xli. 2.) Having penetrated into Judæa, he besieged Jerusalem, and took it; and caused Jehoiakim, the son of Josiah king of Judah, to be put in chains, intending to have him carried to Babylon; but, being moved with his repentance and affliction, he restored him to his throne. (2 Chron. xxxvi. 6.) Great numbers of the Jews, and, among the rest, some children of the royal family, were carried captive to Babylon, whither all the royal treasures, and part of the sacred vessels of the temple, were likewise transported. (2 Chron. xxxvi. 7. Dan. i. 1—7.) Thus was accomplished the judgment which God had denounced to Hezekiah by the prophet Isaiah. (xxxix. 5—7.) From this celebrated period, which was the fourth year of Jehoiakim king of Judah, we are to date the seventy years captivity of the

Jews at Babylon, so often foretold by Jeremiah. Among the members of the royal family thus taken captives was the prophet Daniel; Ezekiel followed some time afterwards.

A. M. 5399, B. C. 605. Nabopolassar died, and Nebuchadnezzar began to reign alone; and in the fourth year of his empire he had the memorable vision related and interpreted by the prophet Daniel. (ii.) At this time Jehoiakim revolted from the king of Babylon, whose generals marched against him, and ravaged his country. (2 Kings xxiv. 1, 2.) Jehoiakim "slept with his fathers," neither regretted nor lamented by his subjects, agreeably to the prediction of Jeremiah (xxii. 18, 19.); though the precise manner of its fulfilment is not recorded by the sacred historian. Jehoiachin or Jeconiah, also called Coniah (Jer. xxii. 24.), succeeded to the throne and iniquity of his father; and in the eighth year of his reign Jerusalem was besieged and taken by the generals of Nebuchadnezzar; and Jehoiachin, together with part of the nobility, and the princes of the people, were carried into captivity to Babylon. (2 Kings xxiv. 6—16.) — Mattaniah also called Zedekiah, who was the uncle of Jehoiachin, was elevated to the throne, and left at Jerusalem, A. M. 5405 B. C. 599. (2 Kings xxiv. 17.)

Nebuchadnezzar did not continue long at Babylon. Having received intelligence that Zedekiah had made an alliance with Pharaoh Hophra, king of Egypt, and had violated his oath of fidelity, Nebuchadnezzar marched against him, defeated his forces, and laid siege to Jerusalem, agreeably to the prediction of Jeremiah. (xli. 30.) The arrival of the Egyptian monarch, at the head of a powerful army, gave the besieged a gleam of hope, but their joy was of short duration. The Egyptians were defeated, and the conqueror returned to Jerusalem, which he took by storm, after a siege of two years, A. M. 5416, B. C. 588. Zedekiah was arrested in his flight, and conducted to Riblath, where Nebuchadnezzar was. After seeing his two children put to death before his face, the Jewish king was deprived of both his eyes, loaded with chains, and carried to Babylon, where he died, Jerusalem was destroy-

Georgia, Persia, &c. vol. ii. pp. 308—32. 337—400; where the reader will find several beautiful views and plans of the ruins of the ancient tower of Babel, as well as of

ed, the temple pillaged and burnt, and the chief of the people that yet survived were carried into captivity beyond the Euphrates. Only a wretched remnant of the common people was left in Judæa, under the government of Gedaliah the son of Ahikam, (Jer. xl. 5.); who being afterwards put to death by Ishmael the son of Nethaniah, part of the people withdrew into Egypt with Jeremiah (xli.-xlii.), and the rest were, a few years afterwards, transported to Babylon by Nebuzaradan. (Jer. lii. 50.)

A. M. 3419, B. C. 585. Three years after the capture of Jerusalem, Nebuchadnezzar commenced the siege of Tyre; he closely invested it for twelve years, and in the thirteenth year of the siege he took that city. During this interval he waged war with the Sidonians, Ammonites, Moabites, and Edomites, or Idumeans, in conformity with the prophecies of Jeremiah, Ezekiel, and Obadiah. (Jer. xliii. xliv. xlv. Ezek. xxvi.—xxviii. Obad. throughout.) Having captured Tyre, Nebuchadnezzar entered Egypt, and laid waste the whole country. (Ezek. xxix.—xxxi.) Pharaoh Hophra (the Apries of profane historians) was put to death by his enemies (Jer. xlv. 50. Ezek. xxxii.); and Amasis, his rival for the throne, was left to govern that country in his stead. Nebuchadnezzar carried a great number of captives from Egypt to Babylon.

After his return from these successful expeditions, Nebuchadnezzar employed himself in embellishing Babylon; but, to humble his pride, God sent him the memorable admonitory dream, recorded by the prophet Daniel (iv. 1—27.); and twelve months afterwards he was bereft of his senses, precisely in the manner that had been foretold. (28—35.) At length he recovered his understanding (34—37.), and shortly after died, in the forty-third year of his reign, A. M. 3412, B. C. 563. He was succeeded by Evil-Merodach, who reigned only two years. He liberated Jehoiachin king of Judah, who had been detained in captivity nearly thirty-seven years. (Jer. lii. 31.) Evil-Merodach becoming odious to his subjects in consequence of his debaucheries and iniquities, his own relations conspired against him, and put him to death. Neriglissar, one of the conspirators, reigned in his stead; and after a short reign of four years, being slain in battle, he was succeeded by Laborosoarchod, a wicked and inglorious prince,

whom his subjects put to death for his crimes. To him succeeded Belshazzar, called by Berossus, Nabonidus, and by Herodotus, Labynitus. He is supposed to have been the son of Evil-Merodach, and consequently the grandson of Nebuchadnezzar, to whom, according to the prophecy of Jeremiah, all the nations of the East were to be subject, as also to his son and grandson.

BASHAN or BATANÆA. See pp. 16. 47. *supra*.

BASHAN, Forest of. See p. 58. *supra*.

BEATITUDES, Mount of. See p. 46. *supra*.

BEERSHEBA, the well of an oath, or the well of seven, because here Abraham made an alliance with Abimelech, king of Gerar, and gave him seven ewe-lambs, in token of that covenant to which they had sworn. (Gen. xxi. 31.) Beersheba was given by Joshua to the tribe of Judah (Josh. xv. 28.); afterwards it was transferred to Simeon. (Josh. xix. 2.) It was twenty miles from Hebron, south: here was a Roman garrison, in Eusebius's and Jerome's time. The limits of the Holy Land (as we have already remarked) are often expressed in Scripture, by the terms—"From Dan to Beersheba." (2 Sam. xvii. 11. &c.) Dan being the northern, Beersheba the southern extremity of the land.

BENJAMIN (canton of the tribe of). See p. 12. *supra*.

BEREA, a city of Macedonia, where Paul preached the Gospel with great success. The historian Luke gives an honourable character to the Bereans, in Acts xvii. 16, 11.

BESOR (brook). See p. 56. *supra*.

BETHABARA signifies a place of passage. It was a water distinct from Jordan, and removed somewhat from it (John i. 28. x. 40.), to which men passed over Jordan. The town was out of the precincts of Judæa, in the Sythopolitan country, where the Jews dwelt among the Syro-Greeks, and was over against Galilee. According to Dr. Lightfoot, it was over against Jericho. (Josh. iii. 16.)

BETHANY, now a miserable little village, consisting of a cluster of mud hovels, was a town of Judæa, where Lazarus dwelt, and where he was raised from the dead. It was situated on the retired and shady side of Mount Olivet, fifteen furlongs eastward of Jerusalem, on the way to Jericho. (John xi. 1.) Somewhere on this side of that mountainous tract, which reached within

eight furlongs of Jerusalem, from which it was only a sabbath-day's journey, Mr. Jowett with great probability places the scene of the Ascension: "for it is said (Luke xxiv. 50, 51.), that Jesus Christ led his disciples out as far as to Bethany, and then was parted from them and carried up into heaven. The previous conversation, as related in the beginning of the Acts of the Apostles (i. 6—9.), would probably occupy some time while walking toward Bethany; for we must not judge of the length of our Lord's discourses, by the brevity with which the evangelists record them. Here the last sparks of earthly ambition were extinguished in the bosoms of the apostles; and they were prepared to expect that purer fire which was ere long to burst forth upon the day of Pentecost. Here their Head was taken from them; and two of the ministering spirits of his train, becoming visible to their eyes, interrupted their mute astonishment, and dismissed them to their proper stations."¹ At present the cultivation around Bethany is much neglected; though it is a pleasant romantic spot, abounding in trees and long grass.²

BETHPAGÉ, a tract of land and also a small village at the foot of the Mount of Olives, between Bethany and Jerusalem. It derived its name from the abundance of figs which grew there. This tract seems to have run along so near to Jerusalem, that the utmost street within the walls was called by that name. It is mentioned in Matt. xxi. 1. and the parallel passages in the other evangelists.

BETHLEHEM, now called **BET-LATHM**, was a celebrated city, about six miles south-west from Jerusalem: it was formerly called Ephrath or Ephrata. (Gen. xxxv. 19. xlviii. 7. Mic. v. 2.) It was a city in the time of Boaz (Ruth iii. 11. iv. 1.), and was fortified by Rehoboam. (2 Chron. xi. 6.) In Matt. ii. 1. 5. it is called Bethlehem of Judæa, to distinguish it from another town of the same name situated in Lower Gilead, and mentioned in Josh. xix. 15. In Luke ii. 4. it is called the *city of David*, because David was born and educated there. (Compare John vii. 42. and 1 Sam. xvi.

1. 18.) This city, though not considerable for its extent or riches, is of great dignity as the appointed birth-place of the Messiah (Matt. ii. 6. Luke ii. 6—15.); it is pleasantly situated on the brow of an eminence, in a very fertile soil, which only wants cultivation to render it what the name Bethlehem imports—*a house of bread*. Between the clefts of the rock, when the soil is cultivated, vines, figs, and olives, appear to grow in great luxuriance. Bethlehem is said to be nearly as large as NAZARETH, and to contain from a thousand to fifteen hundred inhabitants, who are almost wholly Christians. On the north-eastern side of it is a deep valley, where tradition says that the angels appeared to the shepherds of Judæa, with the glad tidings of our Saviour's nativity (Luke ii. 8—14.); and in this valley Dr. Clarke halted at the identical fountain for whose delicious water David longed. (2 Sam. xxiii. 15—18.) Of the various pretended holy places which are here shewn to Christians, the cave of the nativity is the only spot verified by tradition from the earliest ages of Christianity.³ About two miles from this place, on the road to Jerusalem, stood the site of Rachel's tomb (Gen. xxxv. 19, 20. 1 Sam. x. 2.) which is now covered by a small square Mohammedan building, surmounted by a dome, and resembling in its exterior the tombs of saints and sheiks in Arabia and Egypt.

BETHSaida, a city beyond Jordan, on the coast of the sea of Tiberias, near the place where the river enters that sea. It was originally a village, and was enlarged into a city and beautified by Philip the Tetrarch, who called it Julia, in honour of the emperor's daughter. It was one of the cities against which Christ denounced a woe (Matt. xi. 21.) for her impenitence and infidelity; after the mighty works he had done in her. It also was the residence of the apostles Philip, Andrew, and Peter. (John i. 44.) At present Bethsaida exists in little more than the name.

BETHLEA, a small city, not far from the mountain known by the name of the *Mountain of the Beatitudes*. It is generally supposed to be the *city set on a hill*, mentioned in Matt. v. 14. It

¹ Jowett's Christian Researches in Syria, p. 256.

² Dr. Richardson's Travels, vol. ii. p. 371.

³ Dr. Clarke's Travels, vol. iv. pp. 400—420. See also Hasselquist's Travels, p. 144.; and Buckingham's Travels, pp. 218—222.

stands on a very eminent and conspicuous mountain, and is seen far and near: it is at present called Safet, and is peopled by about four hundred Jewish families. The prospect from this place is very extensive. "The view," says the Rev. Mr. Jowett, "to the south and on either side, comprehending about one-third of the circle, presents the most surprising assemblage of mountains, which can be conceived. It is, if such an expression may be allowed, one vast plain of hills. To a distance of 20 or 30 miles toward Nazareth, and nearly the same toward Mount Tabor and Mount Hermon, the far-spreading country beneath is covered with ranges of mountains; which, having passed over them, we knew to be ascents and descents far from inconsiderable; but which, from the eminence of Safet, appear only as bold undulations of the surface of the earth. To the left are the inhospitable and unvisited mountains, eastward of the river Jordan. In the centre of the distant scene, appears the beautiful lake of Tiberias, fully seen from one extremity to the other; and in the back-ground, stretching beyond the utmost power of vision, are the Mountains of Gilead. On a clear day, the view in that direction must be more than 40 miles."¹

BITHYNIA, a region of Asia Minor, bounded on the North by the Euxine Sea, on the south by Phrygia, on the west by the Propontis, and on the east by Galatia. Saint Peter addressed his first Epistle (among others) to the Hebrew Christians who were scattered throughout Bithynia. (1 Pet. i. 1.)

BLESSING, Valley of. See p. 48. *supra*.

BOCHIM, Valley of. See p. 49. *supra*.

CÆSAREA OF PALESTINE, so called as being the metropolis of Palestine and the residence of the Roman pro-consul, was formerly named the Tower of Strato; but its harbour being extremely incommensurable, Herod the Great erected a spacious mole, and greatly enlarged and beautified the city, which he denominated Cæsarea, in honour of the emperor Augustus, his great patron, to whom he dedicated it in the twenty-eighth year of his reign, with games

and other ceremonies, in a most solemn manner, and with a profusion of expense. It is very frequently mentioned in the New Testament; and is sometimes called, by way of eminence, Cæsarea. This place was about thirty-five miles from Jerusalem. Here Peter converted Cornelius and his kinsmen, the first-fruits of the Gentiles (Acts x.); here lived Philip the Evangelist (Acts xxi. 8.); and here Saint Paul so admirably defended himself against the Jews and their orator Tertullus. (Acts xxiv.) Cæsarea now retains nothing of its former splendour: at present the whole of the surrounding country, on the land side, is a sandy desert: the waves wash the ruins of the moles, the towers, and the port, which antiently were both its ornament and its defence, towards the sea. Not a creature (except jackals and beasts of prey) resides within many miles of this silent desolation: and its ruins, which are very considerable, have long been resorted to as a quarry whenever building materials were required at Acre.²

CÆSAREA PHILIPPI (formerly called Paneas) was situated at the foot of Mount Paneas, near the springs of Jordan. It was first called Laish or Lechem (Judg. xviii. 7.), and after it was subdued by the Danites (v. 29.), it received the appellation of Dan. Cæsarea was a day's journey from Sidon; a day and a half from Damascus. Philip the Tetrarch built it, or at least, embellished and enlarged it, and named it Cæsarea, in honour of Tiberius; afterwards, in compliment to Nero, it was called Neronias. The woman who was troubled with an issue of blood, and healed by our Saviour (Matt. ix. 20. Luke viii. 43.) is said to have been of Cæsarea Philippi.

CALVARY. See p. 19. *supra*.

CANA, a small town of Galilee, situated on a gentle eminence to the west of Capernaum. This circumstance distinctly proves how accurately the writings of the evangelists correspond with the geography and present appearance of the country. The ruler of Capernaum, whose child was dangerously ill, besought Jesus to *come down* and heal his son. (John iv. 47—51.) About a quarter of a mile from the small and poor vil-

¹ Jowett's Christian Researches in Syria, p. 184.

² Dr. Clarke's Travels, vol. iv. pp. 446—448. Mr. Buckingham has a long and interesting description of the antient history, and present state of Cæsarea. See his Travels, pp. 126—138.

lage (for such it now is) on the road from Nazareth, there is a well of delicious water close to the road, whence all the water is taken for the supply of the inhabitants. At this well, which is supplied by springs from the mountains about two miles distant, it is usual for pilgrims to halt, as being the source of the water, which our Saviour, by his first public miracle, converted into wine. (John ii. 11.) In consequence of this miracle, both the Christian and Turkish inhabitants of Cana cherish the singular notion that, by drinking copiously of the water of this spring, intoxication is produced. This place is called Cana of Galilee, to distinguish it from Cana or Kanah (Josh. xix. 28.) which belonged to the tribe of Asher, and was situated in the vicinity of Sidon. Here are shewn the ruins of a church, which is said to have been erected by the empress Helena, over the spot where the marriage feast was held.¹

CANAAN, Land of. See pp. 2. 6. *supra*.

CAPERNAUM, a town of Galilee, situated on the coast of the Lake of Genesareth, on the borders of the tract occupied by the tribes of Zebulon and Nephthalim. This place is celebrated for the many mighty works and discourses performed by our Saviour, which brought a heavy woe upon the inhabitants for their infidelity. (Matt. xi. 25.) In the vicinity of this town or city our Lord delivered his admirable sermon; and near it also was the custom-house, at which Matthew the publican was sitting when Jesus called him to the apostleship. (Matt. ix. 1. 9.) Here the Jews had a synagogue (Mark i. 25. Luke iv. 35.), as the Christians afterwards had a church. Mr. Buckingham in 1817 found various remains of some antient settlement in its vicinity; but in 1825 scarcely a relique remained to attest its former existence. Recent travellers describe the appearance of the Lake of Genesareth from Capernaum as singularly grand and impressive. This place is now called *Tal-hheun* or *Tal-hheum*, as it is differently pronounced.²

CAPPADOCIA, a kingdom of Asia, bounded on the east by Armenia, on the west by Paphlagonia and Galatia, on the north by the Euxine Sea, and on the south by that of part of Mount Taurus which looks towards Cilicia. It was famed for mules and horses, of

which it gave yearly to the Persians, horses 1500, mules 2000. The Cappadocians are said to have been a nation so servile, that when the Romans offered them their freedom to live by their own laws, they said they could not endure liberty. This country is mentioned in Acts ii. 9. and also by the apostle Peter, who addresses his first Epistle to the Hebrew Christians who were dispersed through Pontus, Galatia, Cappadocia, Bithynia, and Asia Minor.

CARCHEMISH, a town on the Euphrates belonging to the Assyrians. Necho king of Egypt took it, and left a garrison in it; which was taken and cut in pieces, in the fourth year of Jehoiachin, king of Judah, by Nebuchadnezzar king of Babylon. (2 Chron. xxxv. 20. 2 Kings xxiii. 29.) Isaiah speaks of Carchemish, and seems to say, that Tiglath-pileser conquered it; perhaps from the Egyptians. Profane authors say nothing of this town, or of these wars: it is probable that Carchemish is the same as Cercusium, or Circesium, or Ciceium, situated in the angle formed by the conjunction of the Chaboras, or Chebar, and the Euphrates.

CARMEL, Mount. See p. 45. *supra*.

CEDRON, or Kedron, Brook. See p. 36. *supra*.

CENCHIREA, a haven on the east of the isthmus of Corinth, to which city it was considered as a kind of subsidiary port. It is mentioned in Acts xviii. 18.

CHALDÆA, a country of Asia, lying near the junction of the Tigris and Euphrates, the capital of which was BABYLON, whence it was also denominated BABYLONIA. In antient times it was known by the names Shinar, Shinar, &c. — For a sketch of the profane history of the Chaldæan or Babylonian empire, illustrative of the prophetic writings, see pp. 531, 532. of this geographical index.

CHINNERETH, Sea of. See p. 36. *supra*.

CHIOS (Acts xxi. 15.) is an island of the Egean Sea, between Lesbos and Samos, celebrated in antient and in modern times, for its wine, figs, marble, and white earth.

CHITTIM. — *The land of Chittim*, and *the isles of Chittim*, denote, in general, the maritime countries and islands of the Mediterranean, Greece, Italy,

¹ Dr. Clarke's Travels, vol. iv. pp. 185—188.

² Buckingham's Travels, pp. 469, 470.

Crete, Cyprus, Corsica, &c. Thus, Balaam foretold, that "ships should come from the coast of Chittim, and should afflict Asshur (the Assyrians), and afflict Eber" (the Hebrews, or Jews); representing the Grecian and Roman invasions. And Daniel foretold that "*the ships of Chittim should come against the king of the north* (Antiochus Epiphanes, king of Syria); *and that he should therefore be grieved, and return*" from the south, or Egypt, which he had invaded, when commanded to desist, by the Roman ambassadors. (Dan. xi. 50. Livy, xlv. 10—12.) Persens, king of Macedon, is called "king of Chittim." (1 Macc. viii. 5.)

CHORAZIN, a small town situated on the western coast of the Sea of Galilee, at no great distance from Capernaum. It was one of those places where very many of our Saviour's miracles were performed, whose inhabitants he upbraided for their infidelity. (Matt. xi. 21. Luke x. 15.)

CILICIA, a country of Asia Minor, between Pamphylia on the west, and Pieria on the east, the Mount Taurus on the north, and the Cilician Sea on the south, celebrated on the account of Cicero, proconsul there, but more on the account of St. Paul's birth at Tarsus, a city of Cilicia. (Acts xxii. 5.)

CLAUDA, an island near Crete, situated near the southern and western sea. It is mentioned in Acts xxvii. 16.; as also is

CNIDUS (xxvii. 7.) which was a city and promontory of Caria, memorable for the worship of Venus.

COELO-SYRIA. See SYRIA, 9. *infra*.

COLOSSÆ (or Colassæ) was a city of Phrygia Pacatiana in Asia Minor, situated near the conflux of the Lycus and the Meander. It was formerly a large and populous place, but in the time of Saint Paul had lost much of its ancient greatness, and stood nearly equidistant from Laodiceæ and Hierapolis. According to Eusebius, all these cities were destroyed by an earthquake in the tenth year of the emperor Nero, about a year after the writing of Saint Paul's Epistle to the Colossians. A few ruins, identify its site, which is at present called Khóna by the Turks of Asia Minor.

Coos, an island in the Ægean or Icarian Sea, near Myndos and Cnidus, which had a city of the same name, from which Hippocrates the celebrated physician, and Apelles the famous

painter, were called Coi. Here was a large temple of Æsculapius, and another of Juno. It abounded in rich wines, and here were made those Coæ vestes, which were transparent, and are so often noticed by the classic poets. It is mentioned in Acts xxi. 1.

CORINTH, the metropolis of Achaia Proper, and the ornament of Greece, was situated on an isthmus between the Ægean and Ionian seas. From the convenience of its situation for commerce, it abounded in riches, and was furnished with all the accommodations, elegances, and superfluities of life. In the Achæan war, it was destroyed by the Romans under the consul Memmius, about 146 years before the Christian æra, and was rebuilt about one hundred years afterwards by Julius Cæsar, who planted a Roman colony here, and made this city the residence of the proconsul of Achaia. Favoured by its situation between two seas, the new city soon regained its ancient splendour: commerce produced an influx of riches, and the luxury and voluptuousness which followed in consequence, corrupted the manners of its inhabitants, who became infamous to a proverb. In the vicinity of this city were celebrated the Isthmian games, to which Saint Paul alludes in different parts of his Epistles. Corinth also possessed numerous schools, in which philosophy and rhetoric were taught by able masters, and strangers resorted thither from all quarters to be instructed in the sciences. The number of sophists in particular was very great. The knowledge of these circumstances affords a key to St. Paul's exhortations against fornication, lasciviousness, and covetousness (1 Cor. vi. 9, 10.), and also his defence of the Christian doctrine against the sophists, to whom the fathers attribute all the strifes and contentions that sprang up in this church.

CUSH, or Ethiopia, usually rendered Ethiopia in our English Bible, has a very extensive signification. It comprehends all the southern and eastern borders of Egypt. In some parts of the prophecies of Ezekiel, it plainly denotes African Ethiopia, or Nubia and Abyssinia; and in many other passages. (Isa. xviii. 1. xx. 5. Ezek. xxx. 5. &c.) But in others it must signify Asiatic Ethiopia, or Arabia, as in the description of the garden of Eden. (Gen. ii. 15.) The wife of Moses was contemptuously styled a "Cushite," or Ethiopian of

Arabia. (Numb. xii. 1.) And where "Persia, Ethiopia, and Libya," are recited in order, the second must denote Arabia. (Ezek. xxxviii. 5.) Herodotus, in his curious catalogue of the various nations composing the army of Xerxes, distinguishes the long-haired Eastern or Asiatic Ethiopians from the woolly-headed Western or African. Both being descendants of Cush, a roving and enterprising race, who gradually extended their settlements from Chusistan, "the land of Cush," or Susiana, on the coasts of the Persian Gulf, through Arabia, to the Red Sea; and thence crossed over to Africa, and occupied its eastern coast, and gradually penetrated into the interior of Abyssinia. (Dr. Hales's Analysis of Chronology, vol. i. p. 579.)

CYPRUS, an island in the Mediterranean Sea, situated between Cilicia and Syria, and antiently celebrated for the profligacy of its inhabitants, whose principal deity was the impure goddess Venus. Here Paul and Barnabas landed, A. D. 44, and successfully preached the Gospel. (Acts xiii. 4. *et seq.* xxi. 5.)

CYRENE, the principal city of the province of Lybia in Africa, which was thence sometimes denominated Cyrenaica, and which by the evangelist Luke is paraphrastically called *Lybia about Cyrene*. (Acts ii. 10.) Simon, whom the Jews compelled to bear our Saviour's cross (Matt. xxvii. 32. Luke xxiii. 26.), was a native of this place. At Cyrene resided many Jews, who had a synagogue at Jerusalem. Among the Christians who were scattered abroad, in consequence of the persecution that arose about Stephen, Luke enumerates those of Cyrene. (Acts xi. 20.)

DALMANUTHA. — See MAGDALA.

DAMASCUS, a most antient city, where Eliezer the servant of Abraham dwelt; built, according to Josephus (Antiq. l. 1. c. 7. § 15.), by Uz, the son of Aram, mentioned in Gen. x. 25., and situated in the valley between Libanus and Antilibanus, watered by the rivers Abana and Pharpar. (2 Kings v. 12.) It was made tributary to David (2 Sam. viii. 6.); afterwards it was the capital city of the kings of Syria. (Isa. vii. 8.) It is celebrated for its antiquity and for being still one of the richest and most magnificent cities of the Levant, but most of all for being the place of the miraculous conversion of St. Paul.

DAN, Canton of the tribe of. See p. 12. *supra*.

DEAD SEA. See pp. 58, 59. *supra*.

DECAPOLIS. See p. 16. *supra*.

DERBE, a city of Lycaonia, near Isauria, not far from the Cilician range of Mount Taurus. It was the country of Timothy, and is mentioned in Acts xiv. 6. Various ruins of this place are said still to exist, but they have not been described by any modern traveller.¹

ECBATANA, the Achmetha of Ezra (vi. 2.), was the principal city of Media, and remarkable for the coolness of its temperature; on which account it was chosen to be the summer residence of Cyrus and the succeeding kings of Persia. It was built and fortified by Deioeces, king of the Medes.

EDOMITES, Country of. See p. 8. *supra*; and Idumæa, p. 17. *supra*.

EGYPT, a country of Africa, the length of which was very disproportionate to its breadth: its extent from the mouths of the Nile to Syene, the border of Nubia, under the tropic of Cancer, was about 500 miles; but it was little wider than the valley through which the Nile ran in Upper Egypt, until it reached the Lower Egypt, at some distance above the head or vertex of the Delta, where the valley expanded itself. The Upper Egypt or Thebaid seems to be called Pathros in Scripture, as distinguished from the Lower properly called Caphtor, or Egypt. (Compare Isa. xi. 11. with Ezek. xxix. 14.; and Jer. xlv. 1. with Ezek. xxx. 14—16. Dent. ii. 23. Jer. xlvii. 4.) This country seems to have attained an earlier and a higher degree of civilisation and refinement than any other in the world. Even in Abraham's days we find it the seat of a royal government, and a princely court, abounding with provisions, while the neighbouring countries, and even the fertile regions of Palestine, were exposed to frequent famines. (Gen. xii. 10.) In his grandson Jacob's time, there was a settled caravan trade carried on through Palestine from Arabia and the East, for spicery, balm, and myrrh, and probably also for slaves. (Gen. xxxvii. 25.) Its superior fertility, indeed, was occasioned by the annual inundation of the Nile, the rising of which has furnished the prophet Jeremiah (xlvii. 7, 8.) with a fine image, and by the irrigation of their lands

¹ Col. Leake's Journal of a Tour in Asia Minor, &c. pp. 100—101. London, 1823.

² At Molubis, on the banks of the Nile, Mr. Jowett observed a cattle fair. "Several

(Deut. xi. 10.); and wherever this is still practised, the land now literally brings forth by handfuls, as it did in the time of the patriarch Joseph. (Gen. xli. 47.)¹ And in every age of the world, since the commencement of its antiquity, Egypt has been celebrated for those stupendous monuments of antient art, — the pyramids; several of which have been successfully explored by the enterprising traveller, M. Belzoni. The countless multitude of date trees, which form even forests about some of the villages, furnish a great source of subsistence to the people. To cut these down (as it is said the French were proceeding to do, and would have done, but that the people surrendered at the prospect of this utter ruin) would be to cut off the support of the present, and the hopes of a future generation. Nothing could be more terrible than this denunciation against Egypt — *They shall march with an army, and come against her with axes as hewers of wood: they shall cut down her forest, saith the Lord, though it cannot be searched; because they are more than the grasshoppers, and are innumerable.*" (Jer. xli. 22, 25.):

The Egyptians boasted of being the most antient people in the world; the inventors of arts and sciences: they communicated to the Greeks the names of the gods, and their theology: they exceeded in superstition and idolatry, worshipping stars, men, animals, and even plants. Moses informs us, that the Hebrews sacrificed beasts, whose slaughter was considered by the Egyptians as an abomination (Exod. viii. 26.), likewise that they would not eat with

the Hebrews, because they abhorred all shepherds.

Concerning the motives of this aversion, opinions are divided. Some believe it to be founded on the invasion of Egypt by the shepherd kings from Arabia, who reigned here a long time, according to Manetho. Others think that the Egyptians, after their king Sesostris, being accustomed to a soft and idle life, detested shepherds, whose profession was more active and laborious. Others, that the Egyptians were so averse to shepherds, because of their killing and eating sheep, kids, and goats, which were objects of their worship.

The antiquity of the Egyptian empire is indisputable, though its origin is involved in impenetrable obscurity. The common name of the Egyptian kings was Pharaoh, which signified sovereign power, though each had another name peculiar to himself. History has preserved the names of several kings of Egypt, and a succession of their dynasties: but the inclination of these historians to magnify the great antiquity of their nation has injured their credibility. It is certain that the Egyptian dynasties were not all successive, but many of them were collateral: and the greatest part of the kings, who are placed one after the other, were contemporary, one reigning in one part of Egypt, another in another.

Sketch of the History of the Egyptian Empire, as connected with that of the Israelites.

No intercourse subsisted between the Israelites and Egyptians, from the departure of the former out of Egypt, until the reign of Solomon, who having

buffaloes were swimming, from the opposite side across the water. Their unwieldy body sinks deep into the water, so that only a part of the neck is level with the surface; while their uplifted head just raises the snorting nostrils above the water. Often, a little Arab boy takes his passage across the Nile upon the back of this animal; setting his feet on the shoulders, holding fast by the horns, and thus keeping his balance. As the buffaloes rose out of the water on the bank, I was struck with their large bony size, compared with the little that had appeared of them while in the water. Their emerging brought to mind the passage, Gen. iii. 1. 2. — *Behold he stood by the river: and behold, there came up out of the river, seven well favoured kine and fat fleshed; and they fed in a meadow. It was the very scene, and the very country.*" (Jowett's Christian Researches in the Mediteranean, p. 166.) Mr. J. speaking of the boat in which he crossed the river Nile, says that it "was ballasted with earth taken from the river-banks — very stiff and rich soil, without stones. With this same mud the sides of the boat were plastered, at those parts in the fore-half of the vessel where movable planks were placed, in order to raise the gunnel higher: the mud, filled up the crevices, and prevented the water from gushing in, as would otherwise be the case. This mud was so rich and slimy, and when dry so firm and imperious, that, together with the strong reed that grows on the banks, it is easy to conceive how the mother of Moses constructed a little ark, which would float; she then placed it among the flags, in order that the stream might not carry it down. Exod. iii. 3." (Ibid. p. 167.)

¹ Ibid. p. 167.

² Ibid. p. 170.

married a daughter of Pharaoh (1 Kings iii. 1. vii. 8.), and established a considerable trade between Egypt and Palestine, the two kingdoms became intimately connected. By way of dowry to his daughter, the king of Egypt gave Solomon several cities which he had taken from the Philistines. (1 Kings ix. 16.) Afterwards, however, this intimacy declined, as Pharaoh afforded shelter, even during the life of Solomon, to Jeroboam the son of Nebat (1 Kings xi. 26. 40.), and to Hadad the son of the king of Edom or Idumæa. (ib. 18, 19.) The connexion was totally broken off in the reign of Rehoboam, the son and successor of Solomon: Shishak king of Egypt invaded the kingdom of Judah, and despoiled the temple of its treasures. (xiv. 25, 26.)

Towards the end of the kingdoms of Israel and Judah, the sovereigns of those countries, finding themselves too weak to resist the Assyrian and Babylonian monarchs who pressed them closely, had frequent recourse to the kings of Egypt for succour. But these applications were always fatal to them. The vain confidence of the people of God in these heathen princes is a frequent subject of reproof in the writings of the prophets. (Isa. xxx. 2. xxxvi. 6. Ezek. xxix. 6, 7. Hosea, *passim*, particularly chapters vii. viii. and ix.) Hezekiah derived no advantage from his alliance with the king of Egypt (2 Kings xviii. 21.); neither was Hoshea king of Israel benefited by his alliance with So, king of the same country. (Hosea vii. 11. viii. 13. ix. 3. xii. 9. Jer. ii. 18. 2 Kings xvii. 4.) Josiah, king of Judah, was slain in the vain attempt to oppose the passage of Pharaoh-Necho through his territories, when marching against the Assyrians. (2 Kings xxiii. 29.) Pharaoh pushed on beyond the Euphrates, and took Carchemish, which place he garrisoned; and on his return through Judæa he deposed Jehoahaz, whom the people had raised to the throne, and placed Eliakim or Jehoiakim in his stead, on whom he imposed a tribute.

The governor of Syria and Phœnicia, who held those provinces in behalf of the king of Babylon, having put them under the dominion of the king of Egypt, Nabopolassar, king of Assyria, sent his son Nebuchadnezzar against him; who first retook Carchemish, and afterwards reduced the whole of the country, between the Euphrates and

the Nile to his father's sceptre. (Jer. xvi. Josephus, Ant. Jud. lib. x. c. 6.)

A. M. 3334, B. C. 670. Psammetichus succeeded his father Pharaoh-Necho king of Egypt, and reigned six years. (Herodotus, lib. ii. c. 159—161.) After his death Apries (the Pharaoh-Hophra of the Scriptures) ascended the throne. He made an alliance with Zedekiah king of Judah, and with the king of Ethiopia, against Nebuchadnezzar. The latter marched against them, and besieged Jerusalem. The king of Egypt came to the assistance of Zedekiah, but was repulsed and obliged to retire into his own country, whither he was pursued by Nebuchadnezzar, who after taking the cities of Jerusalem and Tyre, conquered and ravaged Egypt, whence he carried away great numbers of captives, agreeably to the predictions of Jeremiah (xliii. xlv. xlv.) and Ezekiel (xxix.—xxxi.) Apries was put to death, and Amasis, his enemy and rival for the Egyptian sceptre, was elevated to the throne, A. M. 3435, B. C. 569.

Egypt continued subject to Nebuchadnezzar and his successors until the time of Cyrus the Great. This power rebelled towards the close of his reign. Cambyses, his son and successor, conducted an immense army into Egypt. That country was again subdued, and suffered every excess which the cruel victor could possibly inflict upon it, A. M. 3479, B. C. 525. In the reign of Darius, the son of Hystaspes, the Egyptians once more shook off the Persian yoke, but were reduced to a more oppressive bondage than before by his son and successor Xerxes. In those two invasions the predictions of Isaiah (xxix.), and Jeremiah (xliii. 11—15.), were most signally fulfilled.

A. M. 3544, B. C. 460. During the reign of Artaxerxes Longimanus, the Egyptians once more took up arms, and with the assistance of the Greeks, their allies, protracted the war for six years. Again reduced to the Persian yoke, they continued dependent on the Persian monarchs, though governed by their kings, until the reign of Artaxerxes surnamed Ochus, who, in order to punish them for a fourth revolt, totally destroyed the kingdom of Egypt, and made it a province of the Persian empire, A. M. 3654, B. C. 350.

EKAON, a city and government of the Philistines, allotted to Judah by Joshua (xv. 45.); but afterwards given to Dan.

(Josh. xix. 45.) It was near the Mediterranean, between Ashdod and Jamnia. Ekron was a powerful city; and it does not appear that the Jews ever peaceably possessed it: the Ekronites were the first who proposed to send back the ark, to be delivered from those calamities which it brought on their country. (1 Sam. v. 10.) Beelzebub was adored at Ekron. (2 Kings i. 2.)

ELAH, Valley of. See p. 49. *supra*.

EMMAUS, a small village of Judæa, distant sixty furlongs from Jerusalem. It is memorable for the very interesting conversation between Jesus Christ and two of his disciples in the evening of the day of his resurrection. (Luke xxiv.)

ENGADDA, Mountains of. See p. 46. *supra*.

EPHESUS was the metropolis of Proconsular Asia. This celebrated city, the remains of which give a high idea of its former beauty, extent, and magnificence, was situated in that part of Asia which was antiently called Ionia (but now Natolia), about five miles from the Ægean Sea, on the sides and at the foot of a range of mountains overlooking a fine plain that was watered and fertilised by the river Cayster. Ephesus was particularly celebrated for the temple of Diana, a most magnificent and stately edifice, which had been erected at the common expense of the inhabitants of Asia Proper, and was reputed one of the seven wonders of the world. Widely scattered and noble ruins attest the splendour of this edifice, as well as of the theatre mentioned in Acts xix. 51. In the time of Saint Paul, this city abounded with orators and philosophers; and its inhabitants, in their Gentile state, were celebrated for their idolatry and skill in magic, as well as for their luxury and lasciviousness. Ephesus is now under the dominion of the Turks, and is in a state of almost total ruin, being reduced to fifteen poor cottages (erected not exactly on its original site); and its once-flourishing church, of which an account is given in our preface to the Epistle to the Ephesians, in October 1822, was diminished to *ten* poor Greeks. (Rev. ii. 6.) It is not known from whom the Nicolaitans mentioned in the Epistle to the Ephesian church derived their name. They are supposed to have held the opinion subsequently adopted by the Gnostics, who denied the humanity of Jesus Christ, and the

reality of his sufferings in the flesh; and in their practices, which are noticed in Rev. ii. 6. with detestation, they are said to have been singularly profligate and impure. They are supposed to have been alluded to in 2 Pet. ii. and Jude 7—19. In the time of the Romans, Ephesus was the metropolis of Asia.

EPHRAIM, a considerable city of JUDÆA, eight miles north of Jerusalem, and near a desert of the same name; to which Jesus Christ retired after he had raised Lazarus from the dead. (John xi. 54.)

EPHRAIM, Canton of the tribe of. See p. 12. *supra*.

EPHRAIM, Mountains of. See p. 47. *supra*.

EPHRAIM, Forest of. See p. 59. *supra*.

ESDRAELON, Plain of. See p. 51. *supra*.

GAD, Canton of the tribe of. See p. 11. *supra*.

GADARA was, according to Josephus (Bell. Jud. lib. iv. c. 24.), the metropolis of Peræa, or the region beyond Jordan; it was one of the cities of the district of Decapolis, and consequently under heathen jurisdiction, on which account perhaps it was destroyed by the Jews, but was rebuilt by Pompey, in favour of Demetrius Gadarensis, his manumitted servant, according to Josephus. The inhabitants of this city being rich, sent legates to Vespasian when he advanced against Judæa, and gave up this strong city to him; both the city and villages belonging to it lay within the region of the Gergesenes, whence Christ going into the country of the Gadarenes, (Mark v. 1.) is said to go into the region of the Gergesenes. (Matt. viii. 28.) The remains of the warm baths for which this place was antiently celebrated, and also of the tombs (among which the Gadarene demoniac abode) are still to be seen. Gadara is now called Oomkais. ¹

GALATIA, a province of Asia Minor, bounded on the west by Phrygia, on the east by the river Halys, on the north by Paphlagonia, and on the south by Lycaonia. Its chief cities were Ancyra, Tavium, and Pessinuntum; whence Grotius says that Saint Paul, writing to the churches of Galatia, writ to these. They worshipped the mother of the gods, and especially they of Pessinuntum, and so, as St. Paul says (Gal. iv. 8.), "they knew not God." Callimachus, in his hymns, and Hilary who was him-

self a Gaul, represent them¹ as "a very foolish people;" whence St. Paul says, (iii. 1.) O FOOLISH Galatians, who hath bewitched you? This church was so dangerously perverted, and almost overturned by the Judaisers there, that the apostle, in his Epistle to them, does not call them saints.

The Galatians were the descendants of those Gauls who, finding their own country too small to support its redundant population, emigrated from it after the death of Alexander the Great, B. C. 278. On leaving Gaul, they proceeded eastward along the Danube to its junction with the Saave; when, dividing themselves into three bodies, under the conduct of different leaders, one entered Pannonia, another penetrated into Thrace, and a third into Illyricum and Macedonia. The party which marched into Thrace passed over the Bosphorus into Asia Minor, and, hiring themselves to Nicomedes king of Bithynia, assisted him to subdue his brother Zipetes, with whom he was then at war; and, in reward for that service, they received from him a large province, situate between Bithynia and Cappadocia, where they established themselves, B. C. 277. Their descendants becoming blended with the Greek inhabitants of the country, this region was afterwards called Gallo-Græcia, and its inhabitants Gallo-Greeks. During the reign of Augustus (A. D. C. 529. B. C. 26.) Galatia was reduced into a Roman province, and was thenceforth governed by the Roman laws, under the administration of a prætor.

GALILEE, Upper and Lower. See pp. 14, 15. *supra*.

GALILEE, Sea of. See p. 36. *supra*.

GATH, a city of the Philistines, one of their five principalities (1 Sam. vi. 17.), famous for having given birth to Goliath. David conquered it in the beginning of his reign over all Israel (1 Sam. xvii. 4.); it continued subject to his successors till the declension of the kingdom of Judah. Rehoboth rebuilt, or fortified it. (2 Chron. xi. 8.) Uzziah reconquered it; as did Hezekiah. Josephus makes it part of the tribe of Dan; but Joshua takes no notice of it. Calmet thinks, that Mithcah mentioned by Moses (Numb. xxxiii. 29.), is the Metheg, in 2 Sam. viii. 1. In our authorised version it is rendered, David took Me-

theg-Ammah, that is, *Metheg the Mother*, which, in Chronicles (xviii. 1.), is explained by — He took Gath and her daughters: Gath being the mother, and Metheg the daughter. But it may be that the district of Gath and its dependencies was called in David's time, Metheg-Ammah; but this being unusual, or becoming obsolete, the author of the Chronicles explains it to be Gath and its villages. According to this idea, Gath of the Philistines, the birth-place of giants (2 Sam. xxi. 20. 22.), must lie far in Arabia Petraea, towards Egypt, which is confirmed by the author of the book of Chronicles, who says, that the sons of Ephraim being in Egypt, attacked the city of Gath, and were there slain. (1 Chron. vii. 21.)

Jerome says, there was a large town called Gath, in the way from Eleutheropolis to Gaza; and Eusebius speaks of another Gath, five miles from Eleutheropolis, toward Lydda (consequently different from that which Jerome speaks of); also another Gath, or Gaththa, between Jamnia and Antipatris. Jerome likewise, speaking of Gath-Opher, the place of the prophet Jonah's birth, says it was called Gath-Opher, or Gath, in the district of Opher, to distinguish it from others of the same name.

Gath was the most southern city of the Philistines, as Ekron was the most northern; so that Ekron and Gath are placed as the boundaries of their land. (1 Sam. vii. 14. xvii. 52.) Gath lay near Mareshah (2 Chron. xi. 8. Micah i. 14. Heb.), which nearly agrees with Jerome, who places Gath on the road from Eleutheropolis to Gaza. Gath was a place of strength, in the time of the prophets Amos and Micah, independent of the kings of Judah (Amos vi. 2. Micah i. 10. 14.); but was taken by Uzziah, king of Judah, while Amos was living; and afterwards by Hezekiah, in Micah's time. Gethaim (2 Sam. iv. 5. Neh. xi. 35.) is Gath. David had a company of Gittite guards.

GAULONITIS, District of. See p. 16. *supra*.

GAZA, a very celebrated city of the Jews, distant about 60 miles south-west from Jerusalem: it was one of the five cities of the Philistines, which fell by lot to the tribe of Judah (Josh xv. 47.), and which offered their golden emerods to the God of Israel for a trespass offer-

¹ Ἀφρογυ δῆμος, in Delun. v. 184. Gallos indociles. •Hilarii Hymn. Hieron. pæfat. 2 in ep. ad Galat.

ing: (1 Sam. vi. 17.) Its gates were carried away by Sampson (Judg. xvi. 2.) and hither he was conducted when taken by the Philistines (v. 21.), great numbers of whom perished when he pulled down the house of their god Dagon. (v. 30.) This antient town was laid waste by Alexander, and so *made desolate* agreeably to the prediction of Zephaniah (ii. 4.), confirmed by the statement of Strabo. After this event, a new and smaller town of the same name being built nearer to the sea, the former or old Gaza fell to decay; this last is the place mentioned by St. Luke (Acts viii. 26.) as Gaza which is called desert.

GENNESARETH, a region 50 furlongs in length, and 20 in breadth; a very pleasant and fruitful place, abounding in the gardens of great men, whence it had its name from Gen and Sar, as being the garden of princes; it lay at the bottom of the Lake of Gennesareth, and gave that name to it. (Luke v. 1.)

GENNESARETH, Sea of. See p. 36. *supra*.

GERGESA, a town near Gadara, so called, either from the Gergesites, the posterity of Canaan (for neither did Zebulun nor Naphtali drive out all the Canaanites, Judg. i. 30. 33.) or from Gergishta, signifying clay, the soil being clay: it gave name to a region so called, which comprehended in it Gadara, Hippo, and Magdala. See GADARA, p. 540.

GETHSEMANE, a garden beyond Kedron, at the foot of Mount Olivet, so called from the wine presses in it: it is memorable in the evangelical history, as being the scene of our Saviour's agony. In the spring of 1824, it was visited by the Rev. Mr. Fisk, an Anglo-American missionary, by whom it is thus described:—"It is a small plat of ground, with a low inclosure of stones. In it stand eight venerable-looking olives, which seem as if they might have remained there from time immemorial."

GIBEON, the capital city of the Gibeonites, who took advantage of the oaths of Joshua, and of the elders of Israel, on an artful representation which they made of their belonging to a very remote country. (Josh. ix.) Joshua and the elders had not the precaution to consult God on this affair, and inconsiderately made a league with these people: they soon discovered their mis-

take, and without revoking their promise of giving them their lives, they condemned them to carry wood and water to the tabernacle, and other servile work, as a mark of their pusillanimity and duplicity, as slaves and captives; in which state of servitude they remained, till the entire dispersion of the Jewish nation, A. M. 2553; A. D. 1451. Three days after the Gibeonites had surrendered to the Hebrews, the kings of the Canaanites being informed of it, came and besieged the city of Gibeon. (Josh. x. 5. &c.) The Gibeonites came to Joshua, and desired speedy help. Joshua attacked the five kings early in the morning, put them to flight, and pursued them to Bethoron.

The Gibeonites were descended from the Hivites, the old inhabitants of that country, and possessed four cities; Cephirah, Beeroth, Kirjath-jearim, and Gibeon, the capital, afterwards given to Benjamin, excepting Kirjath-jearim, which fell to Judah. The Gibeonites continued subject to those burthens which Joshua had imposed on them, and were very faithful to the Israelites. Nevertheless Saul, through what mistaken zeal we cannot tell, destroyed a very great number of them (2 Sam. xxi. 1, 2, 3. &c.); but God, as a punishment of his cruelty, in the reign of David, sent a great famine, which lasted three years (A. M. 2983; ante A. D. 1017); and the prophets told David that this calamity would continue so long as that cruelty remained unrevenged, which Saul had exercised against the Gibeonites. David asked the Gibeonites, what satisfaction they desired? They answered "*seven of Saul's sons we will put to death, to avenge the blood of our brethren.*" The Gibeonites hung them up before the Lord. This happened in the beginning of spring, when, in Palestine, they begin barley-harvest. From this time there is no mention of the Gibeonites, as composing a sort of separate people. But it is probable that they were included among the Nethinim, or Given, who were public slaves, appointed for the service of the temple. (1 Chron. ix. 2.) Afterwards, those of the Canaanites, who were subdued, and had their lives spared, were added to the Gibeonites. We see (Ezra viii. 20. ii. 58. 1 Kings ix. 20, 21.) that David, Solomon, and the princes of Judah gave many of them to

the Lord; these Nethinim being carried into captivity with Judah and the Levites, many of them returned with Ezra, Zerubbabel, and Nehemiah, and continued as before, in the service of the temple, under the priests and Levites. Gibeon was seated on an eminence, as is evidenced by its name. It was forty furlongs from Jerusalem (according to Josephus) north. It is called Gabaa. (2 Sam. v. 25. compared with 1 Chron. xiv. 16.) There is mention of the fountain and pool of Gibeon. (2 Sam. ii. 15.)

We neither know when, nor by whom, nor upon what occasion, the tabernacle and altar of burnt sacrifices made by Moses, in the wilderness, were removed to Gibeon; but this we certainly know, that toward the end of David's reign, and in the beginning of Solomon's, they were there. (1 Chron. xxi. 29, 30.) David, seeing the angel of the Lord at Araunah's threshing-floor, was so terrified, that he had not time or strength to go so far as Gibeon, there to offer sacrifice, but Solomon being seated on the throne, went to sacrifice at Gibeon, because this was the most considerable of all the high places, where sacrifices were then tolerated, the temple being not yet built. (1 Kings iii. 4.)

GILBOA, Mountains of. See p. 46. *supra*.

GILEAD, Mountains of. See p. 47. *supra*.

GIRGASHITES. See p. 6. *supra*.

GOG and MAGOG, the accurate chronologer, Dr. Hales, thinks, are the general name of the northern nations of Europe and Asia, or the districts north of Caucasus, or Mount Taurus, colonised by Gog, or Magog, another of the sons of Japheth (Gen. x. 2.), called, by the Arabian geographers Jajue and Majuje. (Reunel. Herod. p. 112.) Gog rather denotes the people, Magog the land. Thus, Balaam foretold that Christ would be "a king higher than Agag," or rather "Gog;" according to the more correct reading of the Samaritan Hebrew text, and of the Septuagint version of Numb. xxiv. 7.: and Ezekiel, foretelling a future invasion of the land of Israel by these northern nations, Meshech, Tubal, and Togarmah, styles "Gog their chief prince," and describes their host precisely as Scythian or Tartarian; "coming out of the north, all of them riding on horses;" "hows and arrows" their

weapons; "covering the land, like a cloud, and coming like a storm," in the "latter days." (Ezek. xxxviii. 1—17.) He also describes their immense slaughter, in the valley of the passengers on the east of the sea, thence called the valley of Hamon Gog, "the multitude of Gog." (Ezek. xxxix. 1—22.) This prophecy seems also to be revived in the Apocalypse, where the hosts of Gog and Magog are represented as coming to invade "the beloved city," and perishing with immense slaughter likewise in Armageddon, "the Mount of Mageddo," or Megiddo. (Rev. xvi. 14—16. xx. 7—10.)¹

GOLGOTHA. See p. 19. *supra*.

GOSHEN (Land of) was the most fertile pasture ground in the whole of Lower Egypt: thence called Goshen, from Gush, in Arabic, signifying "a heart," or whatsoever is choice or precious. There was also a Goshen in the territory of the tribe of Judah, so called for the same reason. (Josh. x. 41.) Hence Joseph recommended it to his family as "the best of the land," (Gen. xlvii. 11.), and "the fat of the land." (Gen. xlv. 18.) The land of Goshen lay along the most easterly branch of the Nile, and on the east side of it; for it is evident, that at the time of the exode, the Israelites did not cross the Nile. In antient times, it was considerably more extensive, both in length and breadth, in consequence of the general failure of the eastern branches of the Nile; the main body of the river verging more and more to the west continually, and deepening the channels on that side.²

GREAT SEA. See p. 40. *supra*.

GREECE, in the Scriptures, often comprehends all the countries inhabited by the descendants of Javan, as well in Greece as in Ionia, and Asia Minor. Since the time of Alexander the Great, the name of Greeks is taken in a more uncertain and enlarged sense, because the Greeks being masters of Egypt and Syria, of the countries beyond the Euphrates, &c. the Jews called all those Gentiles Greeks. In the Maccabees, the Gospel, and Paul's writings, a Greek commonly signifies—a Gentile. In the Old Testament, Greece and Greeks are named Javan. Isaiah says (lxvi. 19.) that the Lord shall send his ambassadors to Javan, who dwells in the isles afar off. Ezekiel tells us (xxvii. 13. 19.) that

Javan, Tubal, and Meshech came to the fairs at Tyre. Daniel (xi. 2.) speaking of Darius, says, "that he shall stir up all against the realm of Javan." Alexander the Great is described by the name of king of Javan. (Dan. viii. 21. x. 20.)

HARETH, Forest of. See p. 59. supra.

HEBRON, a city of Judæa, was situated on an eminence, twenty miles southward of Jerusalem, and twenty miles north from Beersheba. Abraham, Sarah, and Isaac, were buried near Hebron, in the cave of Machpelah. (Gen. xxiii. 7, 8, 9.) Near this place was the oak or turpentine-tree, under which Abraham received three angels. (Gen. xviii. 1.) Hebron was allotted to Judah. The Lord assigned it to Caleb for inheritance. (Josh. xiv. 15.) Joshua first took Hebron, and killed its king (Josh. x. 3. 23. 37.), but afterwards Caleb again conquered it, assisted by the troops of his tribe, and the valour of Othniel. It was appointed for a dwelling of the priests, and a city of refuge. David, after the death of Saul, settled the seat of his kingdom here. At Hebron, Absalom began his rebellion. During the captivity of Babylon, the Edomites having invaded the south of Judah, took Hebron; wherefore in Josephus it is sometimes made a part of Edom. Here Zachariah and Elizabeth resided, and John the Baptist was born.

HERMON, Mount. See p. 44. supra.

HIERAPOLIS, a city of Phrygia, in the vicinity of Colossæ and Laodicea (Col. iv. 13.), celebrated for its mineral waters. Its ruins are still considerable.

HINNOM, Valley of. See p. 49. supra.

HITTITES. See p. 6. supra.

HOLY LAND. See p. 2. supra.

HOREB, a mountain in Arabia Petraea, so near Mount Sinai that Horeb and Sinai seem to be two hills of the same mountain. Sinai lies east, Horeb west; so that when the sun rises, the latter is covered with the shadow of Sinai. There are springs and fruit-trees on Horeb, but only rain-water on Sinai. At Horeb God appeared to Moses in the burning bush. (Exod. iii. 1, 2, 3.) At the foot of this mountain, Moses struck the rock, and drew water from it. (Exod. xvii. 6.) Elijah retired here to avoid the persecution of Jezebel. (1 Kings xix.) It is said frequently that God gave the law at Horeb, though the usual name Sinai: the

cause Horeb and Sinai in some sort form but one mountain.

ICONIUM, a city of Lycaonia, the chief of the fourteen belonging to that tetrarchy. Here was a synagogue of Jews and proselytes, to whom Paul and Barnabas preaching, and confirming their doctrine by miracles, converted many to the Christian faith (Acts xiv. 1, 2, 3.); and here the unbelieving Jews and Gentiles made an assault upon them, to use them despitefully, and to stone them. (ver. 5.)

IDUMÆA. See p. 17. supra.

ILLYRICUM, a province lying to the north and north-west of Macedonia, along the eastern coast of the Adriatic Gulph, or Gulph of Venice. It was divided into two parts, Liburnia to the north (now called Croatia), which is not mentioned in the New Testament; and Dalmatia to the South, which region still retains the same name. Hither, St. Paul informs Timothy, Titus went (2 Tim. iv. 10.); and in Rom. xv. 19. he says that he preached the Gospel from Jerusalem round about unto Illyricum.

ISRAEL, Land of. See p. 2. supra.

Kingdom of. See p. 15. supra.

Mountains of. See p. 47. supra.

ISSACHAR, Canton of the tribe of. See p. 12. supra.

ITURÆA. See p. 16. supra.

JABBOK, Brook. See p. 35. supra.

JABESH, a city in the half-tribe of Manasseh beyond Jordan, generally called Jabesh-Gilead, because it lay in Gilead, at the foot of the mountains so named. According to Eusebius it was six miles from Pella towards Gerasa; consequently it must have been east of the Sea of Tiberias. Jabesh-Gilead was sacked by the Israelites, because its inhabitants refused to join in the war against the tribe of Benjamin. (Judg. xxi. 8.) Nahash, king of the Ammonites, laying siege to Jabesh, proposed hard conditions to the inhabitants, from which Saul delivered them, A. M. 2909, B. C. 1094. They ever after shewed great gratitude to Saul and his family; they carried off his and his sons' bodies, which the Philistines had hung upon the walls of Bethshan, and buried them honourably in a wood near their city. (1 Sam. xxxi. 11—15.)

JACOB'S WELL. See p. 41. supra.

JERICO, a celebrated city in the tribe of Benjamin, of which frequent mention is made in the New Testament. It was

the first city taken from the Canaanites by Joshua, who rased it to the ground, and denounced a severe curse on the person who should rebuild it. (Josh. vi. 20. 26. Heb. xi. 30.) This curse was literally fulfilled, in the days of Ahab, upon Hiel the Bethelite, by whom the city was rebuilt. (1 Kings xvi. 34.) After this event it was ennobled by the schools of the prophets, which were established there (2 Kings ii. 5.): and near it was a large but unwholesome spring, the waters of which rendered the soil unfruitful, until they were cured by the prophet Elisha (2 Kings ii. 21.); and from that time they have become exceedingly wholesome and fertilising. In the time of our Saviour, Jericho yielded only to Jerusalem, for its size and the magnificence of its buildings: it is situated in a *bottom*, in that vast plain which was named the *great plain* (which marks the propriety of the expression *going down from Jerusalem*, Luke x. 30.); and is 150 furlongs, about nineteen miles, distant from the capital of Judæa. Jericho was one of the cities appropriated for the residence of the priests and Levites, 12,000 of whom dwelt there; and as the way thither from Jerusalem was

rocky and desert, it was, as it still is, greatly infested with thieves.¹ A country more favourable for the attacks of banditti, and caves better adapted for concealment, than those presented on this road, can scarcely be imagined.² This circumstance marks the admirable propriety with which our Lord made it the scene of his beautiful parable of the *good Samaritan*. (Luke x. 30—37.) Jericho is, at present, a wretched mud-built village.

JERUSALEM, City of. See pp. 17—25. *supra*.

JEZREEL, Plain of. See p. 51. *supra*.

JOPPA, a sea-port of Palestine, on the Mediterranean, called also Japha, and now universally Jaffa, owes all the circumstances of its celebrity, as the principal port of Judæa, to its situation with regard to Jerusalem. "As a station for vessels, its harbour is one of the worst in the Mediterranean: ships generally anchor about a mile from the town, to avoid the shoals and rocks of the place. In ancient times it was the only place resorted to as a sea-port in all Judæa. Hither Solomon ordered the materials for the temple to be brought from Mount Libanus, previous

¹ "The whole of this road," says Mr. Buckingham, "from Jerusalem to the Jordan, is held to be the most dangerous about Palestine, and, indeed, in this portion of it, the very aspect of the scenery is sufficient, on the one hand, to tempt to robbery and murder, and, on the other, to occasion a dread of it in those who pass that way. It was partly to prevent any accident happening to us in this early stage of our journey, and partly perhaps, to calm our fears on that score, that a messenger had been dispatched by our guides to an encampment of their tribe near, desiring them to send an escort to meet us at this place. We were met here accordingly, by a band of about twenty persons on foot, all armed with matchlocks, and presenting the most ferocious and robber-like appearance that could be imagined. The effect of this was heightened by the shouts which they sent forth from hill to hill, and which were re-echoed through all the valleys, while the bold projecting crags of rock, the dark shadows in which every thing lay buried below, the towering height of the cliffs above, and the forbidding desolation which every where reigned around, presented a picture that was quite in harmony throughout all its parts. It made us feel most forcibly, the propriety of its being chosen as the scene of the delightful tale of compassion which we had before so often admired for its doctrine, independently of its local beauty. (See Luke x. 30—34.) One must be amid these wild and gloomy solitudes, surrounded by an armed band, and feel the impatience of the traveller who rushes on to catch a new view at every pass and turn; one must be alarmed at the very tramp of the horses' hoofs rebounding through the caverned rocks, and at the savage shouts of the footmen, scarcely less loud than the echoing thunder produced by the discharge of their pieces in the valleys; one must witness all this upon the spot, before the full force and beauty of the admirable story of the Good Samaritan can be perceived. Here, pillage, wounds, and death would be accompanied with double terror, from the frightful aspect of every thing around. Here, the unfeeling act of passing by a fellow-creature in distress, as the Priest and Levite are said to have done, strikes one with horror, as an act almost more than inhuman. And here, too, the compassion of the Good Samaritan is doubly virtuous, from the purity of the motive which must have led to it, in a spot where no eyes were fixed on him to draw forth the performance of any duty, and from the bravery which was necessary to admit of a man's exposing himself by such delay, to the risk of a similar fate to that from which he was endeavouring to rescue his fellow-creature." — Buckingham's *Travels in Palestine*, pp. 292, 293.

² See a good illustration of the nature of the road to Jericho, and of the banditti who infest it, in Sir F. Henniker's *Notes during a visit to Egypt, Nubia, &c.* p. 284. (London, 1823, 8vo.)

to their conveyance by land to Jerusalem." It is a place of very great antiquity; and it appears from the Acts of the Apostles (ix. x. xi.) that the Gospel was received here soon after Christ's ascension: Here also St. Peter restored Dorcas to life (Acts ix. 40.), and from this place it was that the prophet Jonah, many centuries before, had embarked for Nineveh. (Jonah i. 3.)

JORDAN, River. See pp. 34, 35. *supra*.

——, Region round about. See p. 52. *supra*.

JUDAH, Land of. See p. 2. *supra*.

——, Canton of the tribe of. See p. 12. *supra*.

——, Desert of. See p. 55. *supra*.

——, Kingdom of. See p. 13. *supra*.

——, Mountains of. See p. 47. *supra*.

JUDEA, Country of. See p. 15. *supra*.

KANAH, Brook of. See p. 35. *supra*.

KEDRON, KIDRON, or CEDRON, Brook of. See p. 36. *supra*.

KISHON, Brook of. See p. 36. *supra*.

LAODICEA, a city of Asia Minor, which lay about 42 miles to the south of Ephesus. In the primitive times of Christianity, as appears from Saint Paul's Epistles to the Colossians, in which the Laodiceans are frequently mentioned, this place possessed a flourishing church. But the doom of Laodicea seems to have been more severe and terrible than that of the other six apocalyptic churches. At Eskihisar, close to the ruins of Laodicea, previously to the tremendous earthquake in August 1822, which desolated the greater part of Syria, there resided about fifty poor inhabitants, two only of whom were Christians, who lived together in a small mill, and neither of whom could read! The stately edifices of antient Laodicea are now peopled with wolves and jackals. The prayers of the mosque are the only prayers heard near the still splendid ruins of the city, on which the prophetic denunciation seems to have been fully executed, in its utter rejection as a church.

LEBANON, Mount. See pp. 42—45. *supra*.

LYBYA, among the Greeks, was used as another name for Africa; as it imports a part of it. It was divided into Lybia Interior and Exterior: but the Lybia mentioned by St. Luke (Acts i. 10.) is that by Ptolemy called Lybia Cyrenaica: and by Ptolemy Pentapolitana Regio, from its five chief cities, viz. Berenice, Arsinoë, Ptolemais, Apollonia, and Cyrene.

It is noted in the Old Testament, for its chariots and horses used in fight. (2 Chron. xvi. 8.) But it is mentioned by St. Luke, on account of the Jews, who living in such vast numbers in Alexandria, that 50,000 of them were slain at one time, may well be thought to have had some colonies and proselytes in this neighbouring country.

LYCAONIA (Acts xiv. 6.), a province in the Asia Minor, accounted the southern part of Cappadocia, having Isauria on the west, Armenia Minor on the east, and Cilicia on the south. Its chief cities are all mentioned in this chapter, viz. Iconium, Lystra, and Derbe. *They spake (ver. 11.) in the Lycaonian tongue*, which is generally understood to have been a corrupt Greek, intermingled with many Syriac words.

LYDDA, which in later times was called Diospolis, and is now known by the name of Lod, was a large village, and, according to Josephus, little inferior to a city for its size. This place is celebrated in the Acts of the Apostles for the miraculous cure of Eneas by the apostle Peter (Acts ix. 32. 34.): it was situated at no great distance from Joppa (ix. 38.), on the way from the latter place to Jerusalem.

LYSTRA, a city of Lycaonia, chiefly celebrated for the miraculous cure there wrought upon the lame man, which made the Lycaonians think the gods were come down to them in the likeness of men (Acts xiv. 10, 11.), and for the circumcision of Timothy. (chap. xvi. 1.)

MACEDONIA, a vast province of Greece, formerly called Emathia; and from the kings of Macedon, Macedonia. It was bounded on the north by the mountains of Hæmus, on the south by Epirus and Achaia, on the east by the Aegean, on the west by the Ionian and Adriatic Seas; celebrated in all histories for being the third kingdom that, under Alexander the Great, obtained the empire of the world, and had under it 150 nations. To this country, whose metropolis was then Thessalonica, St. Paul was called by a vision (Acts xvi. 9.); and the churches, by him planted in it, are celebrated for their great charity, and ready contribution to the distressed Jews in Judæa (2 Cor. viii. ix.), when they themselves lay under the extremest poverty.

MAGDALA was a city and territory

beyond Jordan, on the bank of Gadara. It reached to the bridge above Jordan, which joined it to the other side of Galilee, and contained within its precincts DALMANUTHA; hence, while Matthew says (xv. 39.) *Christ came into the coasts of Magdala*, St. Mark says more particularly (viii. 10.), *that he came into the parts of Dalmanutha*.

MAGOG. See GOG, p. 543. supra.

MAMRE, Vale of. See p. 49. supra.

MANASSEH, Canton of the tribe of. See pp. 11, 12. supra.

MEDIA (Acts ii. 9.) was a vast region of Asia, having on the north the Hyrcanian Sea, on the west Armenia and Assyria, on the south Persia, on the east Hyrcania and Parthia. It had its name from Madai the son of Japhet, mentioned Gen. x. 2. In the Babylonian captivity, the Jews were carried captive into Assyria, and placed in the cities of the Medes. (2 Kings xvii. 6. and xviii. 11.) Hence we find many of them and their proselytes at Jerusalem, when the Holy Ghost fell on the apostles. The Medes or Medians were subject to the Assyrian monarchs until the reign of Sardanapalus. Arbaces conspired against him, compelled him to burn himself in Nineveh, and restored the Medes to liberty, A. M. 3257, B. C. 747. He is considered as the founder of the Median monarchy, to which Justin assigns a duration of three hundred and fifty years, but Herodotus only one hundred and twenty years. (Justin. Hist. lib. i. c. 6. ed. Bipont. Herod. lib. i. c. 95—107. ed. Oxon. 1809.) The last-mentioned historian has recorded the names of only four Median sovereigns, viz. Dejoces, Phraortes, Cyaxares, and Astyages. Diodorus Siculus (lib. ii. c. 32. edit. Bipont.) enumerates ten kings; Eusebius and Syncellus, eight. Herodotus, however, acknowledges that the Medes had enjoyed their liberty for some time before they elected Dejoces to be their king, A. M. 3294, B. C. 710. He caused the city of Ecbatana to be built, and is said to have reigned fifty-three years. Phraortes his successor subjugated the Persians to the Median empire, and reigned twenty-two years, A. M. 3347—3369, B. C. 657—635. Phraortes was succeeded by Cyaxares, who took Nineveh, and considerably enlarged the Median empire, A. M. 3369—3409, B. C. 626—595. His son and successor Astyages, reigned thirty-five years, A. M. 3409—3444, B. C. 595—560. No particulars of his reign, however,

are recorded by profane historians, excepting his repulsing an invasion of his territories made by the Babylonians under Evil-Merodach, the son of Nebuchadnezzar. On the death of Astyages, the crown devolved on his son Cyaxares II., whom the Scriptures call Darius the Mede, A. M. 3444, B. C. 560.

MEDITERRANEAN SEA, Plain of. See p. 51. supra.

MELITE, or Malta, an island in the Mediterranean Sea, on which Saint Paul was wrecked. (Acts xxviii. 1.) The learned Mr. Bryant, Dr. Hales, and some others have attempted to shew that this island was in the Adriatic Gulf (See ADRIA, p. 517. of this Appendix): but the general opinion of modern critics and geographers is in favour of the island of Malta.

MESOPOTAMIA, a famous province, situated between the rivers Tigris and Euphrates. The Hebrews call it *Aram Naharaim*, or Aram of the rivers, because it was first peopled by Aram, father of the Syrians, and is situated between two rivers. This country is celebrated in Scripture as the first dwelling of men after the deluge; and because it gave birth to Phaleg, Heber, Terah, Abraham, Nahor, Sarah, Rebekah, Rachel, Leah, and to the sons of Jacob. Babylon was in the ancient Mesopotamia, till by vast labour and industry the two rivers Tigris and Euphrates, were re-united in one channel. The plains of Shinar were in this country. It was often called Mesopotamia Syriae, because it was inhabited by the Arameans, or Syrians; and sometimes *Padan-aram* (Gen. xxviii. 2.), or the plains of Aram; or *Sede-aram*, the fields of Aram; to distinguish them from the barren and uncultivated mountains of the same country. Balaam, son of Beor, was of Mesopotamia. (Deut. xxiii. 4.) Chushanrishathaim, king of Mesopotamia, subdued the Hebrews. (Judg. iii. 8.)

MIDIAN, the land into which Moses fled from the Egyptians. (Acts vii. 29.) Here Jethro lived (Exod. xviii. 1.), and the people were descended from Midian the son of Abraham by Keturah (Gen. xxv. 2.), whence we have reason to believe they still retained the worship of the true God. It was in Arabia Petraea.

MIDIANITES. See p. 7. supra.

MIGDOL, a frontier town of Lower Egypt, towards the Red Sea, between which and that sea the Israelites encamped. (Exod. xiv. 1.) It is there

rendered by the Septuagint Magdolus; and there also Herodotus represents Nekus, or Pharaoh Necho, as gaining a great victory over the Jews, when Josiah was killed; mistaking Magdolus for Megiddo. Jeremiah represents it as belonging to Egypt Proper (xlv. 14.) and in the neighbourhood of Tahpanes, or Daphnæ.

MILETUS, a sea-port of Asia Minor, and a city of Ionia, where Saint Paul delivered to the elders of the church of Ephesus that affecting discourse which is recorded in Acts xx. 17—35. In this city were born Thales, one of the seven wise men, Anaximander his disciple, Timotheus the celebrated musician, and Anaximenes the philosopher. There was another Miletus in Crete, where St. Paul left Trophimus sick. (2 Tim. iv. 20.)

MITYLENE, was a large and beautiful city of the island of Lesbos, where Pittacus, one of the wise men, Alcæus the poet, Diophanes the orator, and Theophrastus the historian, were born. The whole island was also called by that name; as also Pentapolis, from the five cities in it, viz. Issa, or Antissa, Pyrrha, Eressos, Arisba, Mitylene. If it had that name in St. Luke's time, we may understand either the island or the city, when he says (Acts xx. 14.), *We came to Mitylene.*

MOABITES, a people descended from Moab, the incestuous offspring of Lot. Their habitation was beyond Jordan and the Dead Sea, on both sides of the river Arnon. Their capital city was situated on that river, and was called Ar, or Rabbath-Moab, that is, the capital of Moab, or Kirheres, that is, a city with brick walls. This country was originally possessed by a race of giants called Emin. (Deut. ii. 11, 12.) The Moabites conquered them, and afterwards the Amorites took a part from the Moabites. Moses conquered that part which belonged to the Amorites and gave it to the tribe of Reuben. The Moabites were spared by Moses, for God had restricted him (Deut. ii. 9.): but there always was a great antipathy between the Moabites and Israelites, which occasioned many wars between them. Balaam seduced the Hebrews to idolatry and uncleanness, by means of the daughters of Moab (Numb. xxv. 1, 2.); and Balak, king of this people, endeavoured to prevail on Balaam to curse Israel. God ordained that the Moabites should not enter into the

congregation of his people, even to the tenth generation (Deut. xxiii. 3.), because they had the inhumanity to refuse the Israelites a passage through their country, nor would supply them with bread and water in their necessity.

Eglon, king of the Moabites, was one of the first that oppressed Israel, after the death of Joshua. Ehud killed Eglon, and Israel expelled the Moabites. (Judg. iii. 12, &c.) A. M. 2679, B. C. 1325. Hanun, king of the Ammonites, having insulted David's ambassadors, David made war against him, and subdued Moab and Ammon; under which subjection they continued, till the separation of the ten tribes. The Ammonites and Moabites continued in subjection to the kings of Israel to the death of Ahab. Very shortly after the death of Ahab, the Moabites began to revolt. (2 Kings iii. 4, 5.) Mesha, king of Moab, refused the tribute of an hundred thousand lambs, and as many rams, which till then had been customarily paid, either yearly, or at the beginning of every reign, which of these two is not clearly expressed in Scripture. The reign of Ahaziah was too short to make war with them; but Jehoram, son of Ahab, and brother to Ahaziah, having ascended the throne, thought of reducing them to obedience. He invited Jehoshaphat, king of Judah; who, with the king of Edom, then his vassal, entered Moab, where they were in danger of perishing with thirst, but were miraculously relieved. (2 Kings iii. 16., &c.) It is not easy to perceive what were the circumstances of the Moabites from this time; but Isaiah, at the beginning of the reign of king Hezekiah, threatens them with a calamity, which was to happen three years after his prediction, and which probably referred to the war that Shalmaneser, king of Assyria, made with the ten tribes, and the other people beyond Jordan. Amos (i. 13. &c.) also foretold great miseries to them, which, probably, they suffered under Uzziah and Jotham, kings of Judah; or under Shalmaneser (2 Chron. xxvi. 7, 8. xxvii. 5.): or, lastly, the war of Nebuchadnezzar, five years after the destruction of Jerusalem: we believe this prince carried them captive beyond the Euphrates, as the prophets had threatened (Jer. ix. 26. xii. 14, 15. xxv. 11, 12. xlviii. 74. xlix. 5, 6.), and that Cyrus sent them home again, as he did the rest of the captives. After their return from captivity, they multiplied and

fortified themselves as the Jews did, and other neighbouring people; still in subjection to the kings of Persia, afterwards conquered by Alexander the Great, and in obedience to the kings of Syria and Egypt successively, and finally to the Romans. There is a probability also, that in the later times of the Jewish republic, they obeyed the Asmonæan kings, and afterwards Herod the Great. See an account of the principal deities of the Moabites, in p. 344. *supra*.

MORIAH, Mount. See p. 18. *supra*.

MOUNT OF CORRUPTION. See p. 19. *supra*.

MYRA was one of the six great cities of Lycia, situated near the sea; whence St. Luke says (Acts xxvii. 5.) that *sailing over the sea of Cilicia and Pamphylia, they came to Myra in Lycia*. It still preserves its antient name; and there are many remains of its former greatness.

MYRIA (Acts xvi. 7, 8.), a country of Asia, was bounded on the north by Bithynia, on the east by Phrygia Minor, on the west by Troas, on the south by the river Hermus; there, perhaps, St. Paul attempted not to stay, because, as Cicero notes, in his oration for Placcus (c. 51, 52.) they were a people despicable and base to a proverb.

NAIN, a small city or town of Galilee, not far from Capernaum, at the gates of which Jesus Christ raised to life a widow's only son. (Luke vii. 11—15.) It derived its name from its pleasant situation.

NAPHTALI, Canton of the tribe of. See p. 15. *supra*.

NAZARETH, a small city of Lower Galilee, celebrated as having been the place where our Saviour was educated, where he preached, and whence he was called a Nazarene. In the time of Christ it did not possess the best of characters. (John i. 46.) Nazareth which is at present called Nassara, stands on the side of a barren rocky eminence, or hill, facing the south-east. It was from this hill which overlooks the town, the inhabitants would have precipitated him headlong. (Luke iv. 29.) When visited by Dr. Clarke, in 1801,

he found it much reduced. The town was in the most wretched state of indigence and misery; the soil around might bid defiance to agriculture; and to the prospect of starvation were added the horrors of the plague! In 1820, however, when visited by Mr. Connor, it had assumed a better aspect: the number of its inhabitants is stated by him to be about three thousand, principally Christians. Here are numerous reputed holy places to which pilgrims are conducted. The vignette in p. 515. represents the grotto at Nazareth, which is *said* to have been the house of Joseph and Mary.¹

NEBO, Mount. See p. 48. *supra*.

NINEVEH, the capital of the Assyrian empire, could boast of the remotest antiquity. Tacitus styles it "*Vetustissima sedes Assyriæ*." (Annal. 12, 15.) And Scripture informs us, that Nimrod, after he had built Babel, in the land of Shinar, invaded Assyria, where he built Nineveh, and several other cities. (Gen. x. 11.) Its name denotes "the habitation of Nin," which seems to have been the proper name of "that rebel," as Nimrod signifies. And it is uniformly styled by Herodotus, Xenophon, Diodorus, Lucian, &c. "*ἡ Νινῶς*," "the city of Ninus." And the village of Nunia, opposite Mosul, in its name, and the tradition of the natives, ascertain the site of the antient city, which was near "the castle of Arbela," according to Tacitus, so celebrated for the decisive victory of Alexander the Great over the Persians there; the site of which is ascertained by the village of Arbil, about ten German miles to the east of Nunia, according to Niebuhr's map, tab. xlv. At first, Nineveh seems only to have been a small city, and less than Resen, in its neighbourhood: which is conjectured by Bochart, and not without reason, to have been the same as Larissa, which Xenophon describes as "the ruins of a great city, formerly inhabited by the Medes," (Anab. 5.), and which the natives might have described as belonging "La Resen," "to Resen."

Nineveh did not rise to greatness for many ages after, until its second founder, Ninus II. about b. c. 1250, enlarged and made it the greatest city in the

¹ The Rev. Mr. Jowett has given a very interesting description of the site of Nazareth, together with some observations, to account for the bad character which it bore in the time of Jesus Christ. See his *Christian Researches in Syria*, &c. pp. 165—169.

² In the mosque of this village Nunia is shewn the tomb of the prophet Jonah, which is held in great veneration by the Jews at this day. Niebuhr, tom. ii. p. 286.

world. According to Diodorus, it was of an oblong form, 150 stadia long, and 90 broad, and consequently 480 in circuit, or 48 miles, reckoning 10 stadia to an English mile, with Major Rennell. And its walls were 100 feet high, and 10 broad, so that three chariots could drive on them abreast; and on the walls were 1500 towers, each 200 feet high. We are not, however, to imagine that all this vast enclosure was built upon: it contained great parks and extensive fields, and detached houses and buildings, like Babylon, and other great cities of the East, even at the present day, as Bussorah, &c.

And this entirely corresponds with the representations of Scripture: in the days of the prophet Jonah, about B. C. 800, it is said to have been "a great city," "an exceeding great city, of three days' journey" (Jonah i. 2. iii. 3.), perhaps in circuit; for 16 miles is about an ordinary day's journey for a caravan. (Rennel's Herodot. p. 350.) The Jews at present, however, understand it in length, according to Niebuhr (vol. i. p. 286.), which seems to agree with the prophet's "entering into the city a day's journey" (Jonah iii. 4.), if it does not rather denote his going throughout the city, which was a day's journey in length; and this corresponds with the tradition of the natives, that the city extended from Kadikend to Jeriudsjd, two villages on the east of the Tigris, about two or three German miles asunder, of which Niebuhr reckons fifteen to a degree.

The population of Nineveh also at that time was very great. It contained "more than six score thousand persons that could not discern between their right hand and their left, besides much cattle." (iv. 11.) Reckoning the persons to have been infants of two years old, and under, and that these were a fifth part of the whole, according to Bechart, the whole population would amount to 600,000 souls. The same number Pliny assigns for the population of Seleucia, on the decline of Babylon. (vi. 26.) London at present, which perhaps is the

most populous city in the world, not excepting Pekin in China, is not reckoned to exceed 800,000 by Major Rennel. (Herodot. pp. 341. 348.)

The threatened "overthrow of Nineveh within three days," by the general repentance and humiliation of the inhabitants, from the highest to the lowest, was suspended for near 200 years, until "their iniquity came to the full;" and then the prophecy was literally accomplished, in the third year of the siege of the city, by the combined Medes and Babylonians; the king, Sardanapalus, being encouraged to hold out in consequence of an antient prophecy¹ that Nineveh should never be taken by assault, till the river became its enemy; when a mighty inundation of the river, swollen by continual rains, came up against a part of the city, and threw down twenty stadia of the wall in length; upon which the king, conceiving that the oracle was accomplished, burnt himself, his concubines, eunuchs, and treasures, and the enemy entering by the breach, sacked and rased the city, about B. C. 606.

Diodorus also relates, that Belesis, the governor of Babylon, obtained from Arbaces, the king of Media, the ashes of the palace, to erect a mount with them near the temple of Belus, at Babylon; and that he forthwith prepared shipping, and together with the ashes, carried away most of the gold and silver, of which he had private information given him by one of the eunuchs who escaped the fire.

The complete demolition of such immense piles as the walls and towers of Nineveh, may seem matter of surprise to those who do not consider the nature of the materials of which they were constructed; of brick, dried or baked in the sun, and cemented with bitumen, which were apt to be "dissolved" by water², or to moulder away by the injuries of the weather. Besides, in the East, the materials of antient cities have been often employed in the building of new ones in the neighbourhood. Thus Mosul was built with the

¹ This is the more explicit prophecy of Nahum, 115 years before the destruction of Nineveh, "With an overrunning flood, He (THE LORD) will make an utter end of the place thereof," (i. 8.) — "The gates of the river shall be opened, and the palace shall be dissolved," (ii. 6.)

² Captain Cunningham remarked, that at Bussorah, which is built of sun-dried bricks, heavy rain, the falling of houses into the streets is no unusual sight. Rennell's dot. p. 745.

spoils of Nineveh. *Tauk Kesra*, or "the palace of Chosroes," appears to have been built of bricks brought from the ruins of Babylon: and so was *Hellah*, as the dimensions are nearly the same, and the proportion as singular. And when such materials could conveniently be transported by inland navigation they are to be found at very great distances from their antient place, much farther, indeed, than are *Bagdat* and *Seleucia*, or *Ctesiphon*, from Babylon. (Dr. Hales's *Analysis of Chronology*, vol. i. pp. 448—450.)

NO or **NO-AMMON** (the *Diospolis* or *Thebes* of antient geographers) was the metropolis of Upper Egypt. It is mentioned in *Jer.* xvi. 25. *Ezek.* xxx. 14—16. *Nahum* iii. 8. Its Egyptian name was *No*; to which was added *Amon* or *Amoun*, a title of *Jove* among the Egyptians.

OLIVET, Mount. See p. 18. *supra*.

ON, **AUN**, or **HELIOPOLIS**, a city of Egypt. The father-in-law of Joseph was high-priest of *On* (*Gen.* xli. 45.); there rendered *Heliopolis*, by the Septuagint version, and noticed also by *Herodotus*; who says, that "the *Heliopolitans* were reckoned the wisest of the Egyptians." This was the city of *Moses*, according to *Berosus*; and well accounts for his scriptural character, that "he was learned in all the wisdom of the Egyptians." (*Acts* vii. 22.) *Heliopolis* was the Greek translation of *Beth-shemesh*, "the house or city of the Sun," as it was called by *Jeremiah*, "*Beth-shemesh* in the land of Egypt," (*xliii.* 13.), to distinguish it from another *Beth-shemesh*, in the land of *Canaan*. It was called *Beth Aven*, "the house of vanity," or idolatry, by the Jews. (*Ezek.* xxx. 17.)

OPHIR, a country whither *Solomon* sent a fleet, aided by the subjects of *Hiram* king of *Tyre*, and from which they brought back gold (*1 Kings* ix. 27. 28. *2 Chron.* viii. 17, 18.), and also *almug trees* and *precious stones*. (*1 Kings* x. 11.) Not fewer than fifteen or sixteen countries have been assigned by various commentators and critics, as the site of *Ophir*, but the most probable is that of *M. Huet*, Bishop of *Avranches*, who is of opinion that it was on the eastern coast of *Africa*, by the *Arabians* termed *Zanguebar*; that the name of *Ophir* was more particularly given to the small country of *Sofala* on the same coast; that *Solomon's* fleet

went out from the *Red Sea*, and from the port of *Ezion-geber* entered the *Mediterranean* by a canal of communication; and doubling *Cape Guardafui*, coasted along *Africa* to *Sofala*, where was found in abundance whatever was brought to the Hebrew monarch by this voyage. The opinion of *Huet* is adopted by *Mr. Bruce*, who has confirmed it by various additional considerations.

PALESTINE. See p. 3. *supra*.

PALMYRA. See *TADMOR*.

PAMPHYLIA, a province of *Asia Minor*, having to the south the *Pamphylia* Sea, mentioned *Acts* xxvii. 5., *Cilicia* to the east, *Pisidia* to the north (whence we find *Saint Paul* passing through *Pisidia* to *Pamphylia*, *Acts* xiv. 24.), and from *Pamphylia* to *Pisidia* (*Acts* xiii. 14.), and *Lycia* to the west. The cities mentioned in the Scripture as belonging to it, are *Perga* and *Attalia*. (*Acts* xiii. 13.) Here numerous Jews dwelt, and hence those of *Pamphylia* are mentioned among those who appeared at *Jerusalem* on the day of *Pentecost*. (*Acts* ii. 10.)

PAPHOS, the metropolis of the island of *Cyprus* (*Acts* xiii. 4. 6.), and the residence of the pro-consul. It was memorable for the impure worship paid to *Venus*, the tutelary deity of the island. Here *Saint Paul* struck blind *Elymas* the sorcerer, and converted *Sergius* the pro-consul. The Jews dwelt here in great numbers. (*ver.* 6.) Twenty-five or thirty miserable huts are all that remain of this once most distinguished city of *Cyprus*. See *CYPRUS*.

PARAN, Desert of. See p. 53. *supra*.

PARTHIANS are mentioned in *Acts* ii. 9. in conjunction with the *Medes*. The empire of *Parthia* subsisted four hundred years, and disputed for the dominion of the east with the *Romans*. The *Parthians* were celebrated for their veneration of their kings, and for their way of fighting by flight, and shooting their arrows backwards. They dwelt between *Media* and *Mesopotamia*; in all which trans-Euphratensian places, except some little parts of *Babylon*, and of some other small prefectures, the Jews abounded, and some of them were at *Jerusalem* when the Holy Ghost fell on the apostles.

PATHOS, a city and district of Egypt, mentioned by the prophets *Jeremiah* (*liv.* i. 15.), and *Ezekiel* (*xxix.* 14. and *xxx.* 14.).

PATARA (*Acts* xxi. 1.), a sea-port

town of Syria, antiently of considerable note. Extensive ruins mark its former magnificence and extent. Its port is now entirely choked up by encroaching sands.¹

PATMOS, an island in the Ægean Sea, whither the apostle and evangelist John was banished, A. D. 94, and where he had the revelations which he has recorded in the Apocalypse.

PERGÆA. See p. 16. *supra*.

PERGÆA, a city of Pamphylia (Acts xiii. 13.), memorable among the heathens for a temple of Diana built there; and among the Christians for the departure thence of John Mark from Barnabas and Paul, to Jerusalem, which occasioned the rupture between them for a season. (Acts xv. 37. 40.)

PERGAMOS or **Pergamum** was the antient metropolis of Mysia, and the residence of the Attalian kings: it still preserves many vestiges of its antient magnificence. Its present population is computed at about thirty thousand inhabitants, of whom three thousand are Christians,* except about two hundred, who are Armenians. They have each *one* church, but its other churches have been converted into mosques, and are profaned with the blasphemies of the pseudo-prophet Mohammed. Pergamos, or Bergamo as it is now called, lies about sixty-four miles north of Smyrna.

PERIZZITES, the antient inhabitants of Palestine, mingled with the Canaanites. It is very probable that they were Canaanites, who had no fixed habitations, and lived sometimes in one country, sometimes in another, and were thence called Perizzites, which term signifies scattered or dispersed. The Perizzites did not inhabit any certain portion of the land of Canaan. In several places of Scripture the Canaanites and Perizzites are mentioned as the chief people of the country. Thus, we read that, in the time of Abraham and Lot, *the Canaanite and Perizzite were in the land.* (Gen. xiii. 7.)[•] Solomon subdued the remains of the Canaanites and Perizzites, which the children of Israel had not rooted out, and made them tributary. (1 Kings ix. 20, 21. 2 Chron. viii. 7.) There is mention of the Perizzites by Ezra, after the return from Babylon; and several Israelites had married wives of that nation. (Ezra ix. 1.)

¹ **PERSIA**, a country of Asia, bounded on

the west by Media and Susiana; on the south by the Persian Gulf; on the north by the great desert that lay between it and Parthia Proper; and on the east by another still greater, that lay between it and the river Indus. Until the time of Cyrus, and his succession to the Median empire, it was an inconsiderable country, always subject to the Assyrians, Babylonians, or Medes. Its capital city was Persepolis, now Chelminar: lat. 50 degrees. In the neighbourhood of which, to the south-east, was Passagardæ, where was the tomb of Cyrus.

The ruins of Persepolis are remarkable, among other things, for the figures, or symbols, to be seen on the walls and pillars of the temple. Sir John Chardin observed there rains' heads with horns, one higher, and the other lower, exactly corresponding to Daniel's vision of the Medo-Persian empire: the lower horn denoting the Medes, the higher, which came up last, the Persians. (Dan. viii. 5.) A winged lion, with a crown on his head; alluding, perhaps, to the symbolical representation of the Assyrian empire, by "a lion, with eagle's wings;" denoting their ferocious strength and cruelty, and the rapidity of their conquest. (Dan. vii. 4.)

Sketch of the History of the Persian Empire, illustrative of the Prophetic Writings.

CYRUS, who is deservedly called the Great, both on account of his extensive conquests, and also for his liberation of the captive Hebrews, was the son of Cambyses, a Persian grandee, and Mandane the daughter of Astyages king of the Medians. He was born A. M. 5405, B.C. 599, one year after his uncle Cyaxares the brother of Mandane. Weary of obeying the Medians, Cyrus engaged the Persians to revolt from them. He attacked and defeated Astyages his maternal grandfather, whose life he spared, and gave him the government of Hyrcania, satisfied with having liberated the Persians, and compelled the Medes to pay him tribute. Not long after the latter rebelled against him, and involved Cyrus in a protracted war. Having again reduced the Medes, Cyrus directed his arms against the Babylonians, whose ally Cræsus king of Lydia, having come to their assistance, was defeated and obliged to retire into his own country. Cyrus continued to prosecute the war against

the Babylonians, and having settled every thing in that country, he followed Crœsus into Lydia, whom he totally discomfited, and overran his territories. Thus far we have followed the narrative of Justin (lib. i. c. 7.): Herodotus relates events nearly in the same order (lib. i. c. 178.), but places the Babylonian war after the war with Crœsus, and the entire reduction of Lydia. He says that Labynitus (the Belshazzar of Scripture) was at that time the king of Babylon, and that Cyrus, having subdued his other enemies, at length attacked and defeated the Babylonians, who withdrew into their city, which was both strongly fortified and amply stored with provisions. Cyrus finding that the siege would be protracted, diverted the course of the Euphrates, by causing great ditches to be dug on both sides of the city, above and below, that its waters might flow into them: the river being thus rendered passable, his soldiers entered the city through its channel. Babylon was taken, and the impious Belshazzar was put to death. (Dan. v. 50.) So vast was that city, that the inhabitants of each extremity were ignorant of its capture, though the enemy was in its very centre; and as a great festival had been celebrated on that day, the whole city was absorbed in pleasure and amusements. Cyrus constituted his uncle Cyaxares (or Darius the Mede) king of the Chaldeans. (Dan. v. 51.) Cyrus immediately restored the captive Jews to liberty (2 Chron. xxxvi. 22. Ezra i. 1.), and commanded pecuniary assistance to be given to those who stood in need of it. Cyrus died A. M. 5475, B. C. 529, in the seventieth year of his age, though historians are by no means agreed concerning the manner of his death.

Cambyses, the successor of Cyrus, was one of the most cruel princes recorded in history. As soon as he was seated on the throne, he invaded and conquered Egypt, and reigned there three years. At the same time he detached part of his army against the Ethiopians, and commanded his generals to pillage the temple of Jupiter Ammon. Both these expeditions were unfortunate. The army which had been sent against the latter perished in the sands of the deserts; and that which he led against the former, for want of provisions, was compelled to return with great loss. Mortified at his disappointments, Cambyses now gave full vent to the cruelty

of his disposition. He killed his sister Merœ, who was also his wife; he commanded his brother Smerdis to be put to death, and killed many of his principal officers; he treated the gods of the Egyptians with the utmost contempt, and committed every possible outrage against them. Hearing at length that his throne was filled by an usurper, who pretended to be his brother Smerdis, and reigned at Babylon, he set out on his return to his dominions, but died at Ecbatana, a town in Syria, situated at the foot of Mount Carmel.

A. M. 5482, B. C. 522. After the death of Cambyses, the Persian throne was usurped by seven Magi, who governed for some time, making the people believe that their sovereign was Smerdis the brother of Cambyses. The Samaritans, who were always jealous of the prosperity of the Jews, obtained an edict from the pseudo-Smerdis (called Artaxerxes in the Scriptures), prohibiting them from rebuilding the temple and fortifications of Jerusalem. (Ezra iv. 7. 16.) This interruption continued until the second year of Darius the son of Hystaspes.

A. M. 5483, B. C. 521. The imposition of the Magi being at length discovered, Darius the son of Hystaspes was acknowledged king. Having been informed of the permission which Cyrus had granted to the Jews to rebuild their temple, he allowed them to resume the work (Ezra iv. 24. vi. 1.), which they had commenced by the exhortations and encouragement of the prophets Haggai (i. 1.) and Zechariah (i. 1. Ezra v. 1.) This Darius is the Ahasuerus who married Esther, and granted various privileges to the Jews. (See the book of Esther, throughout.)

A. M. 5519, B. C. 485. Xerxes succeeded Darius in the Persian throne; but as no particulars are recorded of him as connected with the Jews, we pass on to the reign of his successor Artaxerxes, who greatly favoured them, first sending Ezra into Judaea (Ezra vii. viii.), and afterwards Nehemiah, to rebuild the walls of Jerusalem. (Neh. ii. iii.) The Persian monarchy subsisted for many centuries after this event; but, as its history is not connected with that of the Jews, it would be foreign to the plan of this abstract to give the succession of its sovereigns.

PHILADELPHIA, a city of Asia Minor, derived its name from its founder, Attalus Philadelphus, and is situated about

twenty-seven miles to the south-east of Sardis. Not long before the date of the Apocalyptic Epistle, this city had suffered so much from earthquakes, that it had been in a great measure deserted by its inhabitants; which may in some degree account for the poverty of this church as described in this Epistle. And its poverty may also in some degree account for its virtue, which is so highly commended. "Philadelphia appears to have resisted the attacks of the Turks in 1512 with more success than the other cities. At a distance from the sea, forgotten by the emperor, encompassed on all sides by the Turks, her valiant citizens defended their religion and freedom above fourscore years, and at length capitulated with the proudest of the Ottomans (Bajazet) in 1590. Among the Greek colonies and churches of Asia, Philadelphia is still erect—a column in a scene of ruins!" (Gibbon's *Decline and Fall*, vol. xi. p. 438. 8vo. edit.) Whatever may be lost of the spirit of Christianity, there is still the form of a Christian church in this city, which is now called *Alahschhr*. It contains about 1000 Christians, chiefly Greeks, most of whom speak only the Turkish language. They have twenty-five places of public worship, five of which are large and regular churches, with a resident bishop and twenty inferior clergy.

PHILIPPI was a city of Macedonia *Prima*, or the first of the four parts into which that province was divided. See Vol. I. p. 227. It was of moderate extent, and situated on the confines of Thracia. It was formerly called Crenides from its numerous springs,* and afterwards Datus from the coal mines in its vicinity. The name of Philippi it received from Philip the father of Alexander, who fortified it, and made it a frontier town against the Thracians. Julius Cæsar planted a colony here, which was afterwards enlarged by Augustus, and hence its inhabitants were considered as freemen of Rome. Christianity was first planted at Philippi, by Saint Paul, A. D. 50, the particulars of which are related in Acts xvi. 9—40.

PHILISTINES, Land of. See p. 7. *supra*.

PHENICE OR PHENICIA, a province of Syria, which extended from the Gulf of Issus, where it bounded Cilicia on the north, along the east southwards, to the termination of the ridges of Libanus and Antilibanus, near Tyre, where it met the border of Palestine.

In breadth it only comprehended the narrow tract between the continuation of Mount Libanus and the sea. Its principal cities were Sidon and Tyre, of which a notice is given in the subsequent part of this Index.

PHRYGIA is a province of Asia Minor, divided into the Greater and Lesser. The former had Bithynia on the north, Galatia on the east, Pamphylia and Lycia on the south, Lydia and Mysia on the west. Its chief cities mentioned in Scripture (Col. ii. 1.) are Laodicea and Hierapolis; and of this St. Luke seems to speak in Acts ii. 10. because he joins it with Pamphylia below it. In Acts xvi. 6. he means Phrygia Minor. The inhabitants are said to have been a servile people, kept in their duty best by stripes, and made wise only by sufferings. In all these parts of Asia Minor, even to Bithynia and the Euxine Sea, the Jews antiently were very numerous.

PISGAI, Mount. See p. 48. *supra*.

PISIDIA (Acts xiv. 24.), a country in Asia Minor, having Pamphylia on the south, Galatia on the north, Isauria on the east, and Phrygia on the west. Its chief city was Antioch in Pisidia (Acts xiii. 14.), so called to distinguish it from Antioch in Syria.

PONTUS, a province of Asia Minor, having the Euxine Sea on the north, Cappadocia on the south, Paphlagonia and Galatia on the east, and the Lesser Armenia on the west. It is supposed that Saint Peter preached in Pontus, because he addresses his first Epistle to the believing Hebrews who were scattered throughout this and the neighbouring provinces.

PROMISE, Land of. See p. 2. *supra*.

PTOLEMAIS, antiently called Accho (Judg. i. 31.) and now known by the name of Acre, is situated on the shore of the Mediterranean Sea, on the confines of Lower and Upper Galilee. Here Saint Paul rested for one day on his journey from Ephesus to Jerusalem. (Acts xxi. 7.) During the croisades this city suffered exceedingly both from infidels and Christians, between whom it was the scene of many sanguinary conflicts: at length it fell under the dominion of the late Djezzar Pacha, under whose government and that of his successor, it has revived, and is now one of the most considerable towns on the coast. Acre has a beautiful appearance, when beheld from a short distance. This place is celebrated for the repulse there given to Napoleon Bu-

naparte, by the Turks under the command of Sir Sydney Smith; who after a long and memorable siege, compelled the French to retire with great loss, and ultimately to abandon Syria.

PUTEOLI (at present called Pozzuolo), a city and haven in the kingdom of Naples, eight miles from that city. Here Saint Paul abode seven days, by the favour of the centurion, on his first journey to Rome. (Acts xxviii. 15.)

RABBATH, Rabbath-Ammon, or Rabbath of the children of Ammon, afterwards called Philadelphia, the capital of the Ammonites, was situated beyond Jordan. It was a place of considerable note in the time of Moses. When David declared war against the Ammonites, his general Joab laid siege to Rabbath-Ammon, where the brave Uriah lost his life, by a secret order given by this prince, that Uriah should be forsaken in a place of danger. And when the city was reduced to the last extremity, David himself went thither, that he might have the honour of taking it. From this time it became subject to the kings of Judah. Afterwards the kings of Israel became masters of it, with all the rest of the tribes beyond Jordan. But towards the conclusion of the kingdom of Israel, Tiglath-pileser having taken away a great part of the Israelites from that country, the Ammonites were guilty of many cruelties against those who remained, in consequence of which the prophets Jeremiah and Ezekiel pronounced very severe prophecies against Rabbath, the capital city of the Ammonites, and against the rest of the country, which probably had their completion five years after the destruction of Jerusalem. Antiochus the Great took the city of Rabbath-Ammon about A. M. 3786. Some time before this, Ptolemy Philadelphus had given it the name of **PHILADELPHIA**. Which see in this Index.

RABBATH-MOAB, or Rabbath of the children of Moab, the capital of the Moabites, otherwise Ar, and Kirheres, or the city with brick walls. (Jer. xlviii. 51. 56.) This city was situated on the river Ar: it underwent many revolutions, and the prophets denounced heavy judgments against it.

RAMA, Ramah, or Ramathaim, is a small town in the tribe of Benjamin, about thirty miles north of Jerusalem; it is frequently mentioned in the Old

Testament. As it stood in a pass between the kingdoms of Judah, Baasha king of Israel seized it, and began to fortify it, to prevent his subjects from passing that way into the kingdom of Judah. (1 Kings xv. 17. 21.) Here Nebuzaradan, the Chaldean general, disposed of his Jewish prisoners after their capital was taken, which occasioned a great lamentation among the daughters of Rachel. (Jer. xl. 1—3. xxxi. 15.) The last-cited passage is applied by St. Matthew (ii. 18.), by way of illustration, to the mourning occasioned by the massacre of the children at Bethlehem and its immediate vicinity, in consequence of Herod's command. Oriental geographers speak of this place as having formerly been the metropolis of Palestine; and Mr. Buckingham informs us, that every appearance of its ruins even now confirms the opinion of its having been once a considerable city. Its situation, as lying immediately in the high road from Jaffa to Jerusalem, made it necessarily a place of great resort; and from the fruitfulness of the country around it, it must have been equally important as a military station or a dépôt for supplies, and as a magazine for the collection of such articles of commerce as were exported from the coast. In its present state, the town of Ramah is about the size of Jaffa, in the extent actually occupied. The dwellings of this last, however, are crowded together around the sides of a hill, while those of Ramah are scattered widely over the face of the level plain on which it stands. The style of building here is that of high square houses, with flattened domes covering them: and some of the old terraced roofs are fenced around with raised walls, in which are seen pyramids of hollow earthenware pipes, as if to give air and light, without destroying the strength of the wall itself. The inhabitants are estimated at little more than five thousand persons, of whom about one-third are Christians of the Greek and Catholic communion, and the remaining two-thirds Mohammedans, chiefly Arabs; the men of power and the military being Turks, and no Jews residing there. The principal occupation of the people is husbandry, for which the surrounding country is highly favourable, and the staple commodities produced by them are corn, olives, oil, and cotton, with some soap and coarse cloth made in the town. There are still remains c

some noble subterranean cisterns at Ramah, not inferior either in extent or execution to many of those at Alexandria: they were intended for the same purpose, namely, to serve in time of war as reservoirs of water.”¹

RAMOTH, a famous city in the mountains of Gilead often called Ramoth-gilead, sometimes Ramoth, and sometimes Ramoth-mizpeh, or the Watch-tower. (Josh. xiii. 26.) This city belonged to the tribe of Gad. It was assigned to the Levites, and was one of the cities of refuge beyond Jordan. (Deut. iv. 43. Josh. xx. 8. and xxi. 38.) It became celebrated during the reigns of the later kings of Israel, and was the occasion of several wars between these princes and the kings of Damascus, who had conquered it, and from whom the kings of Israel endeavoured to regain it. (1 Kings xxii. 5—36. 2 Kings viii. 28, 29. 2 Chron. xxii. 5.) Jehoram, king of Judah, was dangerously wounded at the siege of this place: and Jehu, the son of Nimshi, was here anointed king of Israel, by a young prophet sent by Elisha. (2 Kings ix. 1—10.) Ahab, king of Israel, was killed in battle with the Syrians before this place. (2 Chron. xviii. 3, 4, 5. *et seq.*) It is now called Ramza.

RED SEA, that branch of the southern sea which interposes itself between Egypt on the west, Arabia Felix and some part of Arabia Petraea on the east, while its northern extremities touch on the coast of Edom. Edom, it is well known, in the Hebrew tongue signifies *Red*, and was the name given to Esau for selling his birth-right for a mess of pottage. Both the country which was possessed by his posterity (Gen. xxv. 30. xxxvi. 31—40.), and the sea which was contiguous to it, were called after his name; but the Greeks not understanding the reason of the appellation, translated it into their tongue, and called it *Θαλασσα Ερυθρα*, whence the Latins termed it *Mare Rubrum*, and we the Red Sea. It is also called *Yam Suph*, “the weedy sea,” in several passages (Numb. xxxiii. 10. Psal. cvi. 9. &c.), which are improperly rendered “the Red Sea.” Some learned authors have supposed, that it was so named from the quantity of weeds in it. “But in contradiction to this,” says Bruce, “I must confess that I never in my life (and I have seen the whole

extent of it) saw a weed of any sort in it. And indeed upon the slightest consideration, it will appear to any one, that a narrow gulf, under the immediate influence of monsoons blowing from contrary points six months each year, would have too much agitation to produce such vegetables, seldom found but in stagnant water, and seldom, if ever, found in salt ones. My opinion then is, that it is from the large trees, or plants, of white coral, perfectly in imitation of plants on land, that the sea has taken its name. I saw one of these, which, from a root nearly central, threw out ramifications in a nearly central form, measuring twenty-six feet in diameter every way.” (Travels, vol. ii. p. 158.) This seems to be the most probable solution that has been hitherto proposed of the name. The tides in this sea are but moderate. At Suez the difference between high and low water did not exceed from three to four feet; according to Niebuhr’s observations on the tides in that gulf, during the years 1762 and 1765. (Voyage en Arabie, p. 565.)

Every one knows the celebrated miracle of the passage over the Red Sea, when God opened this sea, dried it up, and made the Israelites pass through it, dry-shod, to the number of 600,000, without reckoning old men, women, or children. The Rabbins, and many of the ancient fathers, relying on Psal. cxxxvi. 15. (to him which divided the Red Sea into parts), have maintained that the Red Sea was so divided as to make twelve passages; that each of the twelve tribes passed through a different passage. But other authors have advanced, that Moses having lived long near the Red Sea, in the country of Midian, had observed that it kept its regular ebbing and flowing like the ocean; so that taking the advantage of the time of the ebb, he led the Hebrews over; but the Egyptians, not knowing the nature of the sea, and rashly entering it just before the return of the tide, were all swallowed up and drowned, as Moses relates. Thus the priests of Memphis explained it, and their opinion has been adopted by a great number of moderns, particularly by the learned critic and philologist, John David Michaelis, who in the queries which he sent to the

Danish traveller M. Niebuhr, while in Egypt, proposed to him to inquire upon the spot, "Whether there were not some ridges of rocks where the water was shallow so that an army at particular times may pass over? Secondly, Whether the Etesian winds which blow strongly all summer from the north-west, could not blow so violently against the sea as to keep it back on a heap; so that the Israelites might have passed without a miracle?" And a copy of these queries was left also for Mr. Bruce, to join his inquiries likewise: his observations on which are excellent. "I must confess," says he, "however learned the gentlemen were who proposed these doubts, I did not think they merited any attention to solve them. This passage is told us by Scripture to be a miraculous one; and if so, we have nothing to do with natural causes. If we do not believe Moses, we need not believe the transaction at all, seeing that it is from his authority alone we derive it. If we believe in God, that He made the sea, we must believe he could divide it when he sees proper reason; and of that he must be the only judge. It is no greater miracle to divide the Red Sea, than to divide the river Jordan. If the Etesian wind, blowing from the north-west in summer, could keep up the sea as a wall on the right, or to the south, of fifty feet high; still the difficulty would remain of building the wall on the left hand, or to the north. Besides, water standing in that position for a day must have lost the nature of fluid. Whence came that cohesion of particles which hindered that wall to escape at the sides? This is as great a miracle as that of Moses. If the Etesian winds had done this once, they must have repeated it many a time before and since, from the same causes. Yet Diodorus Siculus (lib. 5. p. 122.) says, the Troglodytes, the indigenous inhabitants of that very spot, had a tradition from father to son, from their very earliest ages, that once this division of the sea did happen there; and that, after leaving its bottom some time dry, the sea again came back, and covered it with great fury.¹ The words of this author are of the most remarkable kind: we cannot think this

heathen is writing in favour of revelation: he knew not Moses, nor says a word about Pharaoh and his host; but records the miracle of the division of the sea in words nearly as strong as those of Moses, from the mouths of unbiassed undesigning pagans. Were all these difficulties surmounted, what could we do with the pillar of fire? The answer is, We should not believe it. Why then believe the passage at all? We have no authority for the one, but what is for the other: it is altogether contrary to the ordinary nature of things; and if not a miracle, it must be a fable." (vol. ii. pp. 155—137.)

Still, such sceptical queries have their use; they lead to a stricter investigation of facts, and thereby tend strongly to confirm the veracity of the history they meant to impeach. Thus it appears, from the accurate observations of Niebuhr and Bruce, that there is no ledge of rocks running across the gulf any where, to afford a shallow passage. And the second query about the Etesian or northerly wind, is refuted by the express mention of a strong easterly wind blowing across, and scooping out a dry passage, not that it was necessary for Omnipotence to employ it there as an instrument, any more than at Jordan; but it seems to be introduced in the Sacred History by way of anticipation, to exclude the natural agency that might in after times be employed for solving the miracle; and it is remarkable that the monsoon in the Red Sea blows the summer half of the year from the north, the winter half from the south, neither of which could produce the miracle in question. Wishing to diminish, though not to deny the miracle, Niebuhr adopts the opinion of those who contend for a higher passage near Suez. "For," says he, "the miracle would be less if they crossed the sea there, than near Bedea. But whosoever should suppose that the multitude of the Israelites could be able to cross it here without a prodigy would deceive himself: for even in our days, no caravan passes that way to go from Cairo to Mount Sinai, although it would shorten the journey considerably. The passage would have been naturally more difficult for the Israelites some thousands of

¹ Diodorus attributes this to an "extraordinary high tide." The fact, however, that "the ground was bare to the very bottom of the gulf," is admitted by this curious tradition.

years back, when the gulf was probably larger, deeper, and more extended towards the north : for in all appearance the water has retired, and the ground near this end has been raised by the sands of the neighbouring desert." (p. 354.) But it sufficiently appears, even from Niebuhr's own statement, that the passage of the Israelites could not have taken place near Suez : for, 1. He evidently confounded the town of Kolsum, the ruins of which he places near Suez, and where he supposed the passage to be made, with the bay of Kolsum, which began about 45 miles lower down ; as Mr. Bryant has satisfactorily proved, from the astronomical observations of Ptolemy and Ulug Beigh, made at Hieroum, the antient head of the gulf." (See his Treatise on the Plagues of Egypt, pp. 371, 372.)

2. Instead of crossing the sea at or near Ethan, their second station, the Israelites "turned" southwards along the western shore; and their third station at Pihahiroth, or Bedea, was at least a full day's journey below Ethan; as Mr. Bryant has satisfactorily proved from Scripture. (Exod. xiv. 2.) And it was this unexpected change in the direction of their march, which intimated an intention in the Israelites to quit Egypt; and the apparently disadvantageous situation in which they were then placed, "entangled in the land, and shut in by the wilderness," with a deep sea in front, the mountains of Attaka on the sides, and the enemy in their rear, that tempted the Egyptians to pursue them through the valley of Bedea, by the direct road from Cairo; who "overtook them encamping by the sea, beside Pihahiroth, opposite to Baalzephon." (Exod. xiv. 2—9.)

Niebuhr wonders how the Israelites could suffer themselves to be brought into such a disadvantageous situation, or be led blindfold by Moses to their apparent destruction: "one need only travel with a caravan," says he, "which meets with the least obstacle, viz. a small torrent, to be convinced that the orientals do not let themselves be led, like fools, by their Caravan Baschi," or leader of the caravan. (p. 350.) But the Israelites went out of Egypt with "a high hand," though led by Moses, yet under the visible guidance and pro-

tection of "THE LORD GOD of the Hebrews," who went before them by day in a pillar of a cloud, and by night in a pillar of fire." And who, for their encouragement to enter the passage of the sea miraculously prepared for them, removed the cloud which went before the camp of Israel hitherto, and placed it behind them. "And it came between the camp of the Egyptians and the camp of Israel; and it was a cloud and darkness to the one, but gave light by night to the other: so that the one came not near the other all the night." (Exod. xiv. 8—20.)¹

Various antient traditions among the heathen historians attest the reality of the miraculous passage of the Red Sea by the Israelites; to which we may add that it is *manifest* from the text of Moses and other sacred authors, who have mentioned this miraculous passage, that no other account is supportable, but that which supposes the Hebrews to cross over the sea from shore to shore, in a vast space of dry ground which was left void by the waters at their retiring. (Exod xiv. 16, 17. &c.). To omit the numerous allusions in the book of Psalms, Isaiah says (lxiii. 11. &c.) that the Lord divided the waves before his people, that he conducted them through the bottom of the abyss, as a horse is led through the midst of a field. Habakkuk says (iii. 15.), that the Lord made himself a road to drive his chariot and horses across the sea, across the mud of great waters. Lastly, in the apocryphal book of Wisdom we read (xix. 7, 8. x. 17, 18.), that the dry land appeared all on a sudden in a place where water was before; that a free passage was opened in a moment through the midst of the Red Sea; and that a green field was seen in the midst of the abyss.

REPHAIM, Valley of. See p. 49. *supra*.

REUBEN, Canton of the tribe of. See p. 11. *supra*

REGIUM, a port-town in Italy, opposite to Sicily. Here St. Paul staid but one day (Acts xxviii. 13), and did nothing which St. Luke thought fit to mention: but in that day say the fabulous writers of the church of Rome, he converted some of the inhabitants and strangers that were there, by burning a large stone pillar with a little candle;

Dr. Ha
rate view of the
modern infidels.

ysis of Chronology, vol. i. pp. 388—391. The preceding elaborate furnishes a most clear and satisfactory answer to the cavils of

preached to the fishes of the sea; and commanded the grasshoppers, which with their noise disturbed his preaching, to be silent, from which time they left the land !!!

RHODES, an island and city in the Levant, which is said to have derived its name from the abundance of roses which grew there. When Saint Paul went to Jerusalem, A. D. 58, he went from Miletus to Coos, from Coos to Rhodes, and thence to Patara in Lycia. (Acts xxi. 1.)

ROME, the metropolis of the world during the period comprised in the New Testament history. According to the chronology of Archbishop Usher, this city was founded by Remus and Romulus, A. M. 3966 of the Julian period, in A. M. 3256, B. C. 748, towards the close of the reign of Hezekiah, king of Judah. This city is so well known, that it is needless to give any account of it here. The sacred authors of the old Testament have never mentioned it; but it frequently occurs in the books of the Maccabees and in the New Testament. Saint Peter (1 Ep. v. 15.) has denoted it by the figurative name of Babylon. *The church that is at Babylon elected together with you, saluteth you.* Saint John in his Revelation (xiv. 8. xvi. 19. xvii. 5. xviii. 2. 10. 21.) points it out by the same name, and describes it in such a manner, as can only agree to Rome; 1. By its command over all nations, 2. By its cruelty towards the saints, and 3. By its situation upon seven hills. (Rev. xvii. 9.)

St. Paul came twice to Rome:—First, A. D. 61, when he appealed to Cæsar; and, secondly, A. D. 65, a year before his martyrdom, which happened in A. D. 66. Saint Peter is supposed to have been at Rome more than once. It has been thought he went thither A. D. 42: he might return thither again about A. D. 45, 58, and 65. He suffered martyrdom there A. D. 67.

SALT SEA. See pp. 38—39. supra.

SALT, Vale of. See p. 48. supra.

SAMARIA, Mountains of. See p. 46. supra.

SAMARIA, Region of. See p. 15. supra.

SAMARIA, the ancient capital of the kingdom of Israel, is very frequently mentioned in the Old Testament: it was situated on a hill which derived its name from Semer or Shepher, of whom it was purchased by Omri king of Israel,

B. C. 921, who made it the seat of his government, and called it Samaria (Heb. *Shomeron*) from its former owner. By his successors it was greatly improved and fortified, and, after resisting the repeated attacks of the kings of Assyria, it was destroyed by Shalmaneser, B. C. 717, who reduced it to a heap of stones. (Micah i. 6. 2 Kings xvii. 6.) Samaria seems to have arisen again from its ruins during the reign of Alexander, B. C. 549, after whose death it was subject to the Egyptian and Syrian kings, until it was besieged, taken, and rased to the ground by the high priest Hircanus, B. C. 129. or 130. It was afterwards wholly rebuilt, and considerably enlarged by Herod, surnamed the Great, who gave it the name of *Sebastæ*, and erected a temple there, in honour of the emperor Augustus (*Sebastos*) Cæsar. The situation is extremely beautiful and strong by nature. It stands on a fine, large, insulated hill, surrounded by a broad deep valley; which is environed by four hills, one on each side, that are cultivated with terraces up to the top, sown with grain, and (as the valley also is) planted with fig and olive trees. The hill of Samaria likewise rises in terraces to a height equal to any of the adjoining mountains. Samaria is now reduced to a small and poor village.

SAMOS, an island of the Archipelago on the coast of Asia Minor. The Romans wrote to the governor of Samos in favour of the Jews, in the time of Simon Maccabæus, A. M. 5685, B. C. 159. (1 Mac. xv. 25.) St. Paul went ashore on the same island, as he was going to Jerusalem, A. D. 58. (Acts xx. 15.)

SAMOTHRACIA, an island of the Ægean Sea. Saint Paul, departing from Troas for Macedonia, arrived first at Samothracia, and then landed in Macedonia. (Acts xvi. 11.) It received its name from the circumstance of its being peopled by Samians and Thracians.

SARDIS, a city of Asia Minor, was magnificently situated on one of the roots of Mount Imolus, which commands an extensive view over the surrounding country. Considerable ruins still attest the ancient splendour of this once celebrated capital of Croesus and the Lydian kings, which is now reduced to a wretched village called Sart. "A few names" (for the Christians are stated not to exceed seven in number), however are still remaining: and they re-

ceived a copy of the New Testament, in Romæic or modern Greek, with the utmost gratitude from an agent of the British and Foreign Bible Society.

SARETTA, or **Zarephath** (Luke iv. 26.), was a city in the territory of Sidon, between that city and Tyre. It was the place where the widow dwelt to whom the prophet Elijah was sent, and was preserved by her cruise of oil and barrel of meal that wasted not. (1 Kings xvii. 9.) It is now a small village called *Zarfa*.

SARON or **SHARON**, a town adjoining to Lydda, which gave name to the spacious and fruitful valley between Casarea and Joppa. Peter's miraculous healing of the paralytic Eneas at Lydda, was the means of bringing the inhabitants of Saron to the saving knowledge of the Gospel. (Acts ix. 35.)

SEA of Chinnereth, Galilee, or Tiberias. See pp. 36, 37. *supra*.

SEA, RED. See **RED SEA**, pp. 556—559. *supra*.

SEA of Sodom, Salt Sea, or Dead Sea. See pp. 38, 39. *supra*.

SHADOW OF DEATH, Valley of. See p. 59. and note 1. *supra*.

SIXVEN, Valley of. See p. 48. *supra*.

SICHEM. See **SICHEM**, *infra*.

SHUR, Wilderness of. See p. 52. *supra*.

SHUSHAN, the capital of Susiana, a province of Elam or Persia, which Daniel terms the palace (viii. 2.), because the Chaldean monarchs had here a royal palace. After Cyrus, the kings of Persia were accustomed to pass the winter there, and the summer at Ecbatana. The winter was very moderate at Shushan, but the heat of the summer was so great, that the very lizards and serpents, if surprised by it in the streets, are said to have been burned up by the solar rays. This city stands on the river Ulai, or Choaspes. In this city, and on this river, Daniel had the vision of the ram with two horns, and the goat with one horn, &c. in the third year of the reign of Belshazzar (Dan. viii. 1, 2, &c.), A. M. 5417, B. C. 557. In this city of Shushan, the transactions took place, which are related in the book of Esther. Here Ahasuerus, or Darius the son of Hystaspes, generally resided and reigned. (Esth. i. 1, 2. 5., &c.) He rebuilt, enlarged, and adorned it. Nehemiah was also at Shushan, when he obtained from king Artaxerxes permission to return into Judæa, and to repair the walls of Jerusalem. (Neh. i. 1.) Benjamin of Tudela, and Abulfaragius, place the tomb of Daniel at Chuzestan, which is the ancient city of Shushan, and a tomb is still shewn to travellers, as the tomb of the prophet. Lightfoot says¹, that the outward gate of the eastern wall of the temple was called the gate of Shushan; and that upon this gate was carved the figure (more probably the arms or insignia) of Shushan, in acknowledgment of the decree there granted by Darius son of Hystaspes, which permitted the rebuilding of the temple. The site of this once noble metropolis of the ancient sovereigns of Persia, is now a mere wilderness; no human being residing there excepting one poor dervise, who keeps watch over the supposed tomb of the prophet Daniel.

SICHEM, Sychar or Shechem, a city of Samaria, about forty miles distant from Jerusalem, which became the metropolis of the Samaritans after the destruction of Samaria by Hyrcanus. In the vicinity of this place is Jacob's well (John iv. 6.), memorable for our Saviour's conversation with the Samaritan woman. It stands in a delightful situation, and is at present called Napolose. The remains of the seat of the Samaritans, now reduced to about forty persons, chiefly reside here. Contiguous to this place lies a valley, which opens into a plain watered by a fruitful river, which rises near the town. This is univ. ly allowed to be the parcel of a field, mentioned by St. John (iv. 5.) which Jacob bought at the hand of the children of Hamor. (Gen. xxxiii. 19.)

SIDON, Vale of. See p. 48. *supra*.

SIDON, or Zidon, a very ancient and celebrated city and port, founded by Sidon the eldest son of Canaan, from

¹ De Templo, cap. 3.

² See an account of ruins and the present state of Shushan, in Sir R. K. Porter's Travels in Georgia, Persia, &c. vol. ii. pp. 411—418.

³ Dr. Clarke (Travels, vol. iv. pp. 260—286. 8vo.) has given a minute and very interesting account of the antiquities of Shechem. See also Mr. Jolliffe's Letters from Palestine, pp. 44—48.

whom, according to Josephus, it derives its name; but other authorities derive the name Sidon from the Hebrew or Tyrian word סִידוֹן (ṢĪDĪN) which signifies to fish. If the primitive founder was a fisherman, the two accounts may be easily reconciled. Joshua (xi. 8.) calls it Sidon the *Great*, by way of eminence; whence some have taken occasion to say, that in his time there were two Sidons, a greater and a lesser: but no geographer has mentioned any other Sidon than Sidon the Great. Joshua assigned Sidon to the tribe of Asher (Josh. xix. 28.), but this tribe could never get possession of it. (Judg. i. 31.) It is situated on the Mediterranean, one day's journey from Paneas, or from the fountains of Jordan, in a fine level tract of land, the remarkably simple air of which suits with that touching portion of the Gospel, which records the interview of Jesus Christ on this very spot, — *the coasts of Tyre and Sidon*, — with the Syro-Phœnician woman. (Matt. xv. 21—28. Mark vii. 24—30.) Abulfeda places it sixty-six miles from Damascus. This city has been always famous for its great trade and navigation. Its inhabitants were the first remarkable merchants in the world, and were very early celebrated on account of their luxury; for, in the days of the judges of Israel, the inhabitants of Laish are said to have dwelt careless and secure after the manner of the Zidonians. (Judg. xviii. 7.) The men of Sidon being great shipwrights, were particularly eminent, above all other nations, for hewing and polishing timber, there being *none who were skilled how to hew timber like the Zidonians*. (1 Kings v. 6.) This place is now called Seide or Saide. The city, as it exists at present, rises immediately from the strand; and, when seen from a slight distance, presents a rather imposing appearance. The interior, however, is most wretched and gloomy. "About half-way between Saide (or Sidon) and Sour (or Tyre) are very extensive ruins of towns which once connected these two cities; but of these ruins there is now scarcely one stone left upon another. They consist chiefly of lines which shew, raised even with the soil, the foundation of houses

—many stones irregularly scattered—a few cisterns with half-defaced sculpture on them; and, at a considerable distance from the path, there are at one spot several low columns either mutilated or considerably sunk in the earth. These reliques shew, what it needed indeed no such evidence to prove, that in peaceable and flourishing times, on this road between two such considerable cities as Tyre and Sidon, there must have been many smaller towns for business, pleasure, and agriculture, delightfully situated by the sea-side: but peaceful security has long been a blessing unknown to these regions; and we may apply to them the language of Judges v. 7. *The villages ceased; they ceased in Israel.*"¹

SĪHOR, River. See p. 36. *supra*.

SĪLOAM, Fountain or Pool of. See p. 40. *supra*. Just over against this pool, near the bottom of the valley, through which its waters flow with an almost imperceptible current, and on the slope of a lofty mountain on the opposite side, is a village called Siloa: it has a miserable aspect, many of the habitations being no better than excavations from the rock, and the rest very meanly built houses, containing a population of not more than 200 persons.²

SĪMEON, Canton of the tribe of. See p. 12. *supra*.

SĪNAI, Desert of. See p. 53. *supra*.

SĪNAI, a mountain in Arabia Petræa, where the law was given. It had two tops; the one lower, called Horeb, or the Mount of God (Exod. iii. 1.), when he appeared to Moses in a flame of fire in a bush; this Horeb is therefore called Sinai by Saint Stephen. (Acts vii. 30.) See HOREB, p. 544. *supra*.

SĪON, or SĪRION, a name of Mount Hermon. See p. 44. *supra*.

SMYRNA, a city of Asia Minor, was situated between forty and forty-five miles to the north of Ephesus, of which city it was originally a colony. It is now celebrated chiefly for the number, wealth, and commerce of the inhabitants. Of its population, which is estimated at one hundred and forty thousand persons, about twenty-six thousand are Christians in communion with the Greek church; five thousand are Ro-

¹ Jowett's *Christian Researches in Syria*, pp. 129, 130.

² *Ibid.* p. 266.

many Catholics, and one hundred and forty are Protestants. The Christians here are in better condition than in any other of the seven churches. The angel of the church of Smyrna, addressed in the second apocalyptic epistle, is supposed to have been Polycarp, the disciple of Saint John, by whom he was appointed bishop of Smyrna. As he afterwards suffered much, being burnt alive at Smyrna, A.D. 166, the exhortation in Rev. ii. 10. would be peculiarly calculated to support and encourage him.

Sodom, the chief of the Pentapolitan cities, or five cities of the plain, gave the name to the whole land. It was burnt with three other cities, by fire from heaven, for the unnatural lusts of their inhabitants, the truth of which is attested by numerous heathen writers. See pp. 70—73. *supra*.

SYRIA, properly so called, was a country of Asia, comprehended between the Euphrates on the east, the Mediterranean on the west, Cilicia on the north, Phœnicia, Judæa, and Arabia Deserta, on the south. It was divided into various provinces or cantons, which derived their names from their situation, with respect to particular rivers or cities. Thus,

1. *Syria of the two rivers*, or *Mesopotamia* of Syria, or *Aram Naharaim* (Hebrew), was comprehended between the two rivers Tigris and Euphrates.

2. *Syria of Damascus*, that of which Damascus was the capital, extended eastward along Mount Libanus. Its limits varied according as the princes that reigned at Damascus were more or less powerful.

3. *Syria of Tob*, or *Sube*, or *Sobal*, as it is called by the Septuagint, was probably *Cœle-Syria*, or Syria the hollow. Its capital was Zohab, a city unknown, unless it be Hoba or Hobal, north of Damascus. (Gen. xiv. 15.)

4. *Syria of Maachah*, or of *Bethanabak*, was also towards Libanus. (2 Sam. x. 6. 8. 2 Kings xv. 29.) It extended beyond Jordan, and was given to Manasseh. (Deut. iii. 14.)

5. *Syria of Rehob*, or *Rehob*, was that part of Syria of which Rehob was the capital. But Rehob was near the northern frontier of the land of promise (Numb. xlii. 21.), on the way or pass that leads to Emath or Hamath. It was given to the tribe of Asher, and is contiguous to Aphek, which was in (Josh. xix. 29. 30. and xxi. 31.)

Laish, otherwise called Dan, situate at the fountains of Jordan, was in the country of Rehob. (Judg. i. 31.) Hadadezer, king of Syria of Zobah, was son of Rehob or Rohob, or perhaps a native of the city of this name. (2 Sam. viii. 3. 12.) The Ammonites called to their assistance against David, the Syrians of Rehob, of Zoba, of Maachah, and of Ish-tob. (2 Sam. x. 6. 8.)

6. *Syria of Tob*, or of *Istob*, or of the land of Tob, or of the Tubieni, as they are called in the Maccabees, was in the neighbourhood of Libanus, the northern extremity of Palestine. (Judg. xi. 3. 5. 1 Mac. 5. 15. 2 Mac. xii. 17.) When Jephthah was banished by his brethren from Gilcad, he withdrew into the land of Tob.

7. *Syria of Emath*, or *Hamath*, that of which the city Hamath, on the Orontes, was the capital.

8. *Syria*, without any other appellation stands for the Kingdom of Syria, of which Antioch became the capital after the reign of the Seleucidae.

9. **CœLO-SYRIA**, or *Cœle-Syria*, or the Lower Syria, occurs in several places of the Maccabees. (1 Mac. x. 69. 2 Mac. iii. 5. 8. iv. 4. viii. 8.) The word *Cœle-Syria*, in the Greek, signifies *Syria-cava*, or Syria the hollow, or deep. It may be considered, says Strabo, either in a proper and restrained sense, as comprehending only the tract of land between Libanus and Antilibanus; or in a larger signification, and then it will comprehend all the country in obedience to the kings of Syria, from Seleucia or Arabia and Egypt.

Syria at first was governed by its own kings, each of whom reigned in his own city, and territories. David subdued them about A.M. 2960, B.C. 1044 (2 Sam. viii. 6.) on occasion of his war against the Ammonites, to whom the Syrians gave assistance. (2 Sam. x. 6. 8. 13. 18. 19.) They continued in subjection till after the reign of Solomon, when they shook off the yoke, and could not be subdued again till the time of Jeroboam II. king of Israel, A.M. 3179. Rezon, king of Syria, and Pekah, king of Israel, having declared war against Abaz, king of Judah, this prince found himself under the necessity of calling to his assistance Tiglath-pileser, king of Assyria, who put Rezin to death, took Damascus, and transported the Syrians out of their country beyond the Euphrates. From that time Syria con-

tinued in subjection to the kings of Assyria. Afterwards it came under the dominion of the Chaldeans; then under that of the Persians; lastly, it was reduced by Alexander the Great, and was subject to all the revolutions that happened to the great empires of the East.

SYRO-PHœNICIA is Phœnicia properly so called, of which Sidon, or Zidon was the capital; which having by right of conquest been united to the kingdom of Syria, added its old name Phœnicia to that of Syria. The Canaanitish woman is called a Syrophœnician (Mark vii. 26.), because she was of Phœnicia, which was then considered as making part of Syria. St. Matthew calls her a Canaanitish woman (Matt. xv. 22. 24.), because this country was really peopled by the Canaanites, Sidon being the eldest son of Canaan. (Gen. x. 15.) The Syro-Phœnicians were so called to distinguish them from the Phœnicians of Africa, who were called Liby-Phœnicians. Both were of the same Canaanitish stock or original.

TABOR, or Thabor, Mount. See p. 46. *supra*.

TADMOR, a city of Syria erected by king Solomon. It was situated in the wilderness of Syria, on the borders of Arabia Deserta, whence it is called *Tadmor in the Wilderness*, in 1 Kings ix. 18. Josephus places it at two days' journey from the Upper Syria, one day's journey from the Euphrates, and six days' journey from Babylon. He says that there is no water in the wilderness but in this place. (Ant. Jud. lib. viii. c. 6. § 1.) If we may form any conjecture of this city by the ruins of it which later travellers have described, it must have been one of the first and most magnificent in the east; and it is somewhat surprising that history should give us so little account, when or by whom it was reduced to the melancholy condition in which it now appears. The reason why Solomon erected Tadmor in so desolate a place, was, probably, the continual danger of its situation to cut off all commerce between Syria and Mesopotamia, and to prevent them from conspiring against him as they had done against his father David. This preserved the name of Tadmor to the time of Alexander. It then received the name of Palmyra, which it pre-

served for several ages. About the middle of the third century, it became celebrated as the seat of the empire of Odenatus and Zenobia. When the Saracens became masters of the east, they restored its ancient name of Tadmor, which has continued to the present time. Its situation between two powerful empires, that of the Parthians on the east, and that of the Romans to the west, often exposed it to danger from their contests. In time of peace, however, it soon recovered itself, by its trade with both empires; for the caravans of Persia and of the Indies, which now unload at Aleppo, then used to stop at Palmyra: thence they carried the merchandize of the east, which came to them by land, to the ports of the Mediterranean, and returned the merchandize of the west after the same manner.

TAHAPANES, or Tahpanes (Jer. ii. 16.), a city of Egypt, which antiently was a royal city, of considerable note, it is supposed to be the same as Daphnæ Pelusiacæ. Jeremiah, and the Israelites with him, retired to this place: and here it was revealed to the prophet, that Nebuchadnezzar should take this city, and set up his throne in the very place where Jeremiah had hidden stones. (Jer. xliii. 7—11.)

TARSUS, the metropolis of Cilicia (Acts xxi. 39.), was celebrated for being the place whither Jonah designed to fly, and where St. Paul was born. It was a very rich and populous city, and had an academy, furnished with men so eminent, that they are said to have excelled in all arts of polite learning and philosophy; even the academies of Alexandria, and Athens, and Rome itself, were indebted to it for their best professors.

TEKOAN, Wilderness of. See p. 53. *supra*.

THESSALONICA, a large and populous city and seaport of Macedonia, the capital of one of the four districts into which the Romans divided that country after its conquest by Paulus Æmilius. It was situated on the Thermaic Bay, and was antiently called Thestia; but, being rebuilt by Philip the father of Alexander, after his victory over the Thessalians, it then received the name of Thessalonica.

At the time of writing the Epistle to the Thessalonians, Thessalonica was the residence of the proconsul who governed the province of Macedonia,

and of the quæstor who had the charge of the imperial revenues. Besides being the seat of government, this port carried on an extensive commerce, which caused a great influx of strangers from all quarters; so that Thessalonica was remarkable for the number, wealth, and learning of its inhabitants. The Jews were extremely numerous here. The modern name of this place is Salonichi: it is the chief part of modern Greece, and has a population of sixty thousand persons, twelve thousand of whom are Jews. According to Dr. Clarke, who has given a very interesting account of the antiquities, present state, and commerce of Thessalonica, this place is the same now it was then; a set of turbulent Jews constituted a very principal part of its population: and, when Saint Paul came hither from Philippi, where the Gospel was first preached, to communicate the "glad tidings" to the Thessalonians, the Jews were sufficient in number to "set all the city in an uproar."

THYATIRA, a city of Asia Minor, was a considerable city in the road from Pergamos to Sardis, and about 48 miles eastward of the former. It is called by the Turks Ak-hisar: and the number of Christians here is nearly the same as at Bergamo or Pergamos.

TIBERIAS (John vi. 1—23, xxi. 1.), still called by the natives Tabaria or Tabbarceah, was antiently one of the principal cities of Galilee: it was built by Herod the Great, and so called in honour of the emperor Tiberius. The privileges conferred upon its inhabitants by Herod, caused it in a short time to become a place of considerable note: it was situated in a plain near the Lake of Gennesareth, which is thence termed the *Lake or Sea of Tiberias*. After the destruction of Jerusalem, this city became eminent for its Academy, over which a succession of Jewish doctors presided until the fourth century. On every side small ruins of walls, columns, and foundations, indicate its antient splendour. The modern population of Tiberias is from fifteen hundred to two thousand: it is principally inhabited by Jews, who are said to be the

descendants of families resident there in the time of our Saviour. Dr. Clarke conjectures that they are a remnant of refugees who fled hither after the capture of Jerusalem by the Romans. Tiberias is about ninety miles distant from Jerusalem: the modern town stands close to the lake upon a small plain surrounded by mountains, and is celebrated for its hot baths, which are much frequented.¹

TRACHONITIS. See p. 16. supra.

TROGYLIUM, (Acts xx. 15.) a promontory at the foot of Mount Mycale, opposite to, and about five miles from Samos.

TYRE, a celebrated city and sea-port of Phœnicia, that boasted of a very early antiquity, which is recognised by the prophet Isaiah (xxiii. 7.), but is variously estimated by profane writers, whose discordant accounts this is not the place to adjust and determine. Even in the time of Joshua it was strongly fortified; for it is called the *strong city Tyre*. (Josh. xix. 29.) Tyre was twofold, insular and continental. Insular Tyre was certainly the most antient; for this it was which was noticed by Joshua: the continental city, however, as being more commodiously situated, first grew into consideration, and assumed the name of Palætyrus, or Old Tyre. Want of sufficient attention to this distinction, has embarrassed both the Tyrian chronology and geography. Insular Tyre was confined to a small rocky island, eight hundred paces long and four hundred broad, and could never exceed two miles in circumference. But Tyre, on the opposite coast, about half a mile from the sea, was a city of vast extent, since many centuries after its demolition by Nebuchadnezzar, the scattered ruins measured nineteen miles round, as we learn from Pliny and Strabo. Of these, the most curious and surprising are, the cisterns of Ras-el-Ain, designed to supply the city with water; of which there are three still entire, about one or two furlongs from the sea; so well described by Maundrell, for their curious construction and solid masonry. "The fountains of these waters," says he, after the description, "are as unknown

¹ Dr. Clarke's Travels, vol. iv. pp. 219—233. 8vo. Capt. Light's Travels in Egypt, &c. &c. p. 30. Mr. Jolliffe's Letters from Palestine, pp. 32—34. Mr. Burckhardt's Travels in Syria, &c. pp. 320—330. Travels in Egypt and Nubia, &c. by Captains Irby and Mangles, p. 294.

as the contriver of them. According to common tradition, they are filled from a subterraneous river which king Solomon discovered by his great sagacity; and he caused these cisterns to be made as part of his recompence to king Hiram, for the materials furnished by that prince towards building the temple at Jerusalem. It is certain, however, from their rising so high above the level of the ground, that they must be brought from some part of the mountains, which are about a league distant; and it is as certain that the work was well done at first; seeing it performs its office so well, at so great a distance of time; the Turks having broken an outlet on the west side of the cistern, through which there issues a stream like a brook, driving four corn mills between it and the sea." From these cisterns there was an aqueduct which led to the city, supported by arches, about six yards from the ground, running in a northerly direction, about an hour, when it turns to the west, at a small mount, where antiently stood a fort, but now a mosque, which seems to ascertain the site of the old city; and thence proceeds over the isthmus that connects Insular Tyre with the main, built by Alexander, when he besieged and took it.

Old Tyre withstood the mighty Assyrian power, having been besieged, in vain, by Shalmaneser, for five years, although he cut off their supplies of water from the cisterns, which they remedied by digging wells, within the city. It afterwards held out for thirteen years against Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, and was at length taken: but not until the Tyrians had removed their effects to the insular town, and left nothing but the bare walls to the victor, which he demolished.

What completed the destruction of the city was, that Alexander afterwards made use of these materials to build a prodigious causeway, or isthmus, above half a mile long, to the insular city, which revived as the phoenix, from the ashes of the old, and grew to great power and opulence, as a maritime state; and which he stormed after a most obstinate siege of five months.

Poëcocke observes, that "there are no signs of the antient city; and as it is a sandy shore, the face of every thing is altered, and the great aqueduct is in many parts almost buried in the sand." (Vol. ii. p. 81.) Thus has been fulfilled the prophecy of Ezekiel: *Thou shalt be built no more: though thou be sought for, yet shalt thou never be found again!* (xxvi. 21.)

The fate of Insular Tyre has been no less remarkable: when Alexander stormed the city, he set fire to it. This circumstance was foretold: "Tyre did build herself a strong-hold, and heaped up silver as the dust, and fine gold as the mire of the streets. Behold the Lord will cast her out, and he will smite her power in the sea, and she shall be devoured with fire." (Zech. ix. 3, 4.) After this terrible calamity, Tyre again retrieved her losses. Only eighteen years after, she had recovered such a share of her antient commerce and opulence, as enabled her to stand a siege of fourteen months against Antigonus, before he could reduce the city. After this, Tyre fell alternately under the dominion of the kings of Syria and Egypt, and then of the Romans, until it was taken by the Saracens, about A.D. 639, retaken by the Crusaders, A.D. 1124; and at length sacked and razed by the Mamelukes of Egypt, with Sidon, and other strong towns, that they might no longer harbour the Christians, A.D. 1289.

The following description of the modern town of Surat, by a recent intelligent traveller, will give the reader a lively idea of the splendour of antient Tyre in the days of her commercial prosperity, as delineated by the prophet Ezekiel (xxvii. 5.): "The bazaars, filled with costly merchandise, picturesque and interesting groups of natives on elephants, camels, horses, and mules; strangers from all parts of the globe, in their respective costume; vessels building on the stocks, others navigating the river; together with Turks, Persians, and Armenians, on Arabian chargers; European ladies in splendid carriages, the Asiatic females in hackeries drawn by oxen; and the motley

appearance of the English and nabob's troops on the fortifications, remind us of the following description of Tyre: *O thou that art situate, &c.* (Ezek. xxvii. 3.) This is a true picture of oriental commerce in antient times; and a very exact description of the port, and the bazaars of Surat, at the present day."¹

"Numerous, beautiful columns, stretched along the beach, or standing in fragments half-buried in the sand that has been accumulating for

ages, the broken aqueduct, and the ruins which appear in its neighbourhood, exist, as an affecting monument of the fragile and transitory nature of earthly grandeur."²

ZAREPHATH. See SAREPTA, p. 548.

ZEBULUN, Canton of the tribe of. See pp. 12, 15.

ZIDON, See SIDON, pp. 560, 561. *supra*.

ZIPH, Wilderness of. See p. 53. *supra*.

¹ Forbes's *Oriental Memoirs*, vol. i. p. 244.

² Jowett's *Christian Researches in the Mediterranean*, Appendix, p. 422. See also his *Christian Researches in Syria*, pp. 131—141.; and for other testimonies of modern travellers relative to the actual state of Tyre, see Vol. I. pp. 332, 333. *supra*.

No. II.

TABLES OF WEIGHTS, MEASURES, AND MONEY, MENTIONED IN THE BIBLE.

Chiefly extracted from Dr. Arbuthnot's Tables of Antient Coins, Weights, and Measures.

[Referred to, in Page 488. of this Volume.]

1. Jewish Weights reduced to English troy weight.

	lbs.	oz.	pen.	gr.
The gerah, one-twentieth of a shekel	-	0	0	12
Bekah, half a shekel	-	0	0	5
The shekel	-	0	0	10
The maneh, 60 shekels	-	2	6	0
The talent, 50 maneh or 3000 shekels	-	125	0	0

2. Scripture Measures of length reduced to English measure.

	Eng.	feet.	inch.
A digit	-	0	0.912
4 A palm	-	0	3.648
12 3 A span	-	0	10.944
24 6 3 A cubit	-	1	9.888
96 24 6 2 A fathom	-	7	3.552
144 36 12 6 1.5 Ezekiel's reed	-	10	11.328
192 48 16 8 2 1.3 An Arabian pole	-	14	7.104
1920 480 160 80 20 13.3 10 A schoenus or measuring line	145	11.04	

3. The long Scripture Measures.

	Eng.	miles.	paces.	feet.
A cubit	-	0	0	1.824
400 A stadium or furlong	-	0	145	4.6
2000 5 A sabbath day's journey	-	0	729	3.0
4000 10 2 An eastern mile	-	1	403	1.0
12000 30 6 3 A parasang	-	4	153	3.0
96000 240 48 24 8 A day's journey	-	33	172	4.0

4. Scripture Measures of Capacity for Liquids, reduced to English wine measure.

									Gal.	pints.
A caph	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0.625
1.3	A log	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0.833
5.3	4	A cab	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	3.333
16	12	3	A hin	-	-	-	-	-	1	2
32	24	6	2	A seah	-	-	-	-	2	4
96	72	18	6	3	A bath or ephah	-	-	-	7	4
960	720	180	60	20	10	A kor or coros, chomer or homer	-	-	75	5

5. Scripture Measures of Capacity for things dry, reduced to English corn measure.

									Pecks.	gal.	pints.
A gachal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	0.1416
20	A cab	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	2.8333
36	1.8	An omer or gomer	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	5.1
120	6	3.3	A seah	-	-	-	-	-	1	0	1
360	18	10	3	An ephah	-	-	-	-	3	0	3
1800	90	50	15	5	A letech	-	-	-	16	0	0
8600	180	100	30	10	2	A chomer, homer, kor, or coros	-	-	32	0	1

6. Jewish Money reduced to the English Standard.

									£.	s.	d.
A gerah	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	1.2687
10	A bekah	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	1	1.6875
20	2	A shekel	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	2	3.375
1200	120	50	A maneh, or mina Hebraica	-	-	-	-	-	5	14	0.75
60000	6000	3000	60	A talent	-	-	-	-	342	9	9
A solidus aureus, or sextula, was worth									0	12	0.5
A sicles aureus, or shekel of gold, was worth									1	16	6
A talent of gold was worth									5475	0	0

In the preceding table, silver is valued at 5s., and gold at £4 per ounce.

7. Roman Money, mentioned in the New Testament, reduced to the English Standard.

									£.	s.	d.	far.
A mite (Aureus or Aescupier)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	0	0.1
A farthing (Aescupier)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	0	1.1
A penny or denarius (Aescupier)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	7	9
A pound or mina	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5475	0	0	0

No. III.

A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF THE

PRINCIPAL EVENTS RECORDED IN THE BIBLE.

Abridged from Archbishop Usher and Calmet.

The true date of the Birth of Christ is FOUR YEARS before the common æra or A.D.

PERIOD I.

From the Creation to the Deluge, 1656 years.

Anno Mundi, or Year of the World.		Year before Christ
		4000, before A.D.
1	T HE creation. Eve, tempted by the serpent, disobeys God, and persuades her husband Adam to disobedience also. God drives them out of paradise.	4004
2	Cain born, Adam's eldest son.	3999
3	Abel born, Adam's second son.	3998
129	Cain kills his brother Abel.	3871
150	Seth born, son of Adam and Eve.	3870
235	Enos born, son of Seth.	3765
325	Cainan born, son of Enos.	3675
395	Mahalaleel born, son of Cainan.	3605
460	Jared born, son of Mahalaleel.	3540
622	Enoch born, son of Jared.	3378
687	Methuselah born, son of Enoch.	3313
874	Lamech born, son of Methuselah.	3126
930	Adam dies, aged 930 years.	3070
987	Enoch translated: he had lived 365 years.	3013
1042	Seth dies, aged 912 years.	2958
1056	Noah born, son of Lamech.	2944
1140	Enos dies, aged 905 years.	2860
1235	Cainan dies, aged 910 years.	2765
1290	Mahalaleel dies, aged 895 years.	2710
1422	Jared dies, aged 962 years.	2578
1536	God informs Noah of the future deluge, and commissions him to preach repentance to mankind, 120 years before the deluge.	2464
1536	Japhet born, the eldest son of Noah.	2444
1538	Shem born, the second son of Noah.	2442
1581	Lamech dies, the father of Noah, aged 777 years.	2355

A. M.		B. C.
1656	Methuselah dies, the oldest of men, aged 969 years, in the year of the deluge. The same year, Noah, being 600 years old, by divine command enters the ark.	2549
PERIOD II.		
<i>From the Deluge to the First Call of Abraham, 420 years and six months.</i>		
1657	Noah, being now 601 years old, takes off the roof of the ark on the first day of the first month; and on the twenty-seventh day of the second month Noah quits the ark. He offers sacrifices of thanksgiving. God appoints the rainbow as a pledge that he would send no more an universal deluge.	2347
1658	Arphaxad born, the son of Shem.	2346
1693	Salah born, son of Arphaxad.	2311
1723	Heber born, son of Salah.	2281
1757	Phaleg born, son of Heber.	2247
1770	The building of the tower of Babel; the confusion of languages, and dispersion of the nations.	2230
1771	The beginning of the Babylonian or Assyrian monarchy by Nimrod; and of the Egyptian empire by Ham the father of Mizraim.	2234
1787	Reu born, the son of Phaleg.	2217
1819	Serug born, son of Reu.	2185
1824	The trial of Job.	2130
1849	Nahor born, son of Serug.	2155
1878	Terah born, the son of Nahor.	2126
1948	Haran born, the son of Terah.	2056
2006	Noah dies, aged 950 years.	1998
2008	Abram born, the son of Terah.	1996
2018	Sarai born, wife of Abram.	1986
2083	The call of Abram from Ur of the Chaldees to Haran in Mesopotamia, where his father Terah died, aged 205 years.	1921

PERIOD III.

From the Second Call of Abraham to the Departure of the Israelites out of Egypt, 430 years.

2083	The second call of Abram from Haran. He comes into Canaan with Sarai his wife, and Lot his nephew; and dwells at Sichem.	1921
2084	Abram goes into Egypt; Pharaoh takes his wife, but soon restores her again. Abram returns from Egypt; he and Lot separate.	1920
2092	Abram's victory over the five kings, and rescue of Lot.	1912
2093	Sarai gives her maid Hagar, for a wife, to her husband Abram.	1911
2094	Ishmael born, the son of Abram and Hagar. Abram was 86 years old. Gen. xvi. 16.	1910
2107	The new covenant of the Lord with Abram: God promises him a numerous posterity: his name changed to Abraham, and that of Sarai to Sarah. Gen. xvii, Circumcision instituted. Abraham entertains three angels, under the appearance of travellers; they promise him Isaac. Sodom, Gomorrah, Admah, and Zeboim, burnt by fire from heaven. Lot is preserved; retires to Zoar; commits incest with his daughter.	1897
2108	Abraham departs from the plains of Mamre to Beer-sheba. Isaac born.	1896

A. M.		B. C.
2133	Abraham offers his son Isaac to God for a burnt-offering.	1871
2145	Sarah dies, aged 127 years.	1859
2148	Isaac marries Rebekah.	1856
2168	Jacob and Esau born, Isaac being 60 years old.	1836
2184	Abraham dies, aged 175 years.	1821
2200	Isaac covenants with Abimelech king of Gerar.	1804
2208	Esau marries Canaanitish women.	1796
2245	Isaac blesses Jacob, who withdraws into Mesopotamia, to his uncle Laban; and marries first Leah, and then Rachel.	1759
2246	Reuben born, son of Jacob and Leah.	1758
2247	Simeon born, son of Leah.	1757
2248	Levi born, son of Leah.	1756
2249	Judah born, son of Leah.	1755
2259	Joseph born, son of Jacob and Rachel, Jacob being 90 years old.	1745
2265	Jacob returns to Canaan. Esau comes to meet him, and receives him, with much affection. Jacob arrives at Shechem.	1739
2270	The rape of Dinah — Benjamin born, son of Rachel.	1734
2276	Joseph, being 17 years old, tells his father Jacob his brothers' faults; they hate him, and sell him to strangers, who take him into Egypt. Joseph sold again, as a slave, to Potiphar.	1728
2286	Joseph, tempted by the wife of Potiphar, refuses her, and is put in prison.	1718
2287	Joseph explains the dreams of the two officers of Pharaoh.	1717
2289	Pharaoh's dreams explained by Joseph, who is made governor of Egypt. — The beginning of the seven years of plenty foretold by Joseph.	1715
2296	The beginning of the seven years of scarcity foretold by Joseph.	1708
2297	Joseph's ten brethren come into Egypt to buy corn. Joseph imprisons Simeon.	1707
2298	Joseph's brethren return into Egypt, with their brother Benjamin. Joseph discovers himself, and engages them to come into Egypt with their father Jacob, then 130 years old.	1706
2300	Joseph gets all the money of Egypt into the royal treasury.	1704
2301	Joseph gets all the cattle of Egypt for the king.	1703
2302	The Egyptians sell their lands and liberties to Pharaoh.	1702
2302	The end of the seven years of scarcity. Joseph returns the Egyptians their cattle and their lands.	1702
2315	Jacob's last sickness: he adopts and blesses Ephraim and Manasse; foretels the characters of all his sons; and dies, aged 147 years.	1689
2369	Joseph dies, aged 110 years. He foretels the departure of the Israelites from Egypt, and desires that his bones may be taken with them into Canaan.	1635
2385	Levi dies, aged 157 years.	1619
2427	A revolution in Egypt. Rameses Miamun, the king, who knew neither Joseph nor his services, persecutes the Israelites. About this time, according to Calmet, lived Job, famous for his wisdom, virtue, and patience.	1577
2430	Aaron born, son of Amram and Jochebed.	1574
2433	Moses born; exposed on the banks of the Nile; and found by Pharaoh's daughter, who adopts him.	1571
2473	Moses kills an Egyptian: flees into Midian: marries Zipporah, the daughter of Jethro: has two sons by her, Gershon and Eliezer.	1531
2513	Moses, commissioned by God, returns into Egypt. Pharaoh refuses to set the Israelites at liberty. Moses inflicts ten plagues on Egypt; after which the Israelites are liberated.	1491

PERIOD IV.

From the Departure of the Israelites out of Egypt to their Entrance into the Land of Canaan, 40 years.

A. M.		B. C.
2513	Pharaoh pursues the Israelites with his army, and overtakes them at Pi-hashiroth. The waters divided. Israel goes through on dry ground. The Egyptians drowned; 21st of the first month.	1491
2514	After the delivery of the law, with various circumstances of terror, the covenant of the Israelites with God, their gross idolatry, and many other events, the tabernacle is erected on the first day of the first month of the second year after the Exodus. The priesthood is established on the arrival of the Israelites at Kadesh-barnea; whence they send twelve chosen men, one out of each tribe, to examine the land of Canaan. After forty days these men return to Kadesh-barnea, and exasperate the people, saying that this country devoured its inhabitants, and that they were not able to conquer it. Caleb and Joshua withstand them; the people mutiny. God swears that none of the murmurers should enter the land, but be consumed in the desert. The people resolve on entering Canaan, but are repulsed by the Amalekites and the Canaanites.	1490
2515	The people continue a considerable time at Kadesh-barnea, whence they go toward the Red Sea. The sedition of Korah, Dathan, and Abiram, is supposed to have happened at the encampment of Kadesh-barnea.	1489
2552	After wandering in the deserts of Arabia Petraea and Idumaea thirty-seven years, they return to Mozereth, near Kadesh-barnea, in the thirty-ninth year after the Exodus. Moses sends ambassadors to the king of Edom, who refuses a passage through his territories. The Israelites arrive at Kadesh. Miriam dies, aged 130 years. The Israelites murmur for want of water. Moses brings it from the rock; but he, as well as Aaron, having shewn some distrust, God forbids their entrance into the land of promise. From Kadesh they go to mount Hor, where Aaron dies, aged 123 years. The king of Arad attacks Israel, and takes several captives. From mount Hor they come to Zalmonah, where Moses raises the brazen serpent. Others think this happened at Punon.	1452
2553	Sihon king of the Amorites refuses the Israelites a passage through his dominions. Moses attacks him and takes his country. Og king of Bashan attacks Israel, but is defeated. Distribution of the countries of Sihon and Og to the tribes of Reuben and Gad, and to the half tribe of Manasseh. Moses renews the covenant of Israel with the Lord. The death of Moses, who is succeeded by Joshua. Joshua sends spies to Jericho.	1451

PERIOD V.

From the Entrance of the Israelites into the Land of Canaan to the Building of Solomon's Temple, 447 years.

2553	The people pass the river Jordan. Joshua restores circumcision. Manna ceases. The first passover after the passing over Jordan. Jericho taken. The Gibeonites make a league with Joshua. War of the five kings against Gibeon, whom Joshua defeats; the sun and moon stand still.	1451
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A. M.		B. C.
2554	War of Joshua against the kings of Canaan.	1450
2559	Joshua divides the conquered country among Judah, Ephraim, and the half tribe of Manasseh.	1445
2560	The ark and the tabernacle fixed at Shiloh in the tribe of Ephraim. Joshua finishes the division of the country.	1444
2561	Joshua renews the covenant between the Lord and the Israelites. Joshua dies, aged 110 years. After his death the elders govern about eighteen or twenty years, during which time happen the wars of Judah with Adoni-bezek. During the succeeding anarchy happened the idolatry of Micah, and the war of the twelve tribes against Benjamin, to revenge the outrage committed on the wife of a Levite. God sends his prophets in vain to reclaim the Hebrews. He permits, therefore, that they should fall into slavery under their enemies.	1443
2591	I. Servitude of the eastern Israelites under Cushanrishathaim, king of Mesopotamia, eight years.	1413
2599	Othniel delivers them; conquers Cushanrishathaim: judges the people forty years.	1405
2661	II. Servitude of the eastern Israelites under Eglon, king of Moab, about sixty-two years after the peace of Othniel.	1343
2679	Ehud delivers them, after about twenty years.	1323
2699	III. Servitude of the Israelites under the Philistines. Shamgar delivers them.	1305
2719	IV. Servitude of the northern Israelites under Jabin king of Hazor. Deborah and Barak deliver them after twenty years. From 2699 to 2719.	1285
2752	V. Servitude of the eastern and northern Israelites under the Midianites.	1252
2759	Gideon delivers Israel. He governs them nine years.	1245
2768	Abimelech son of Gideon procures himself to be made king of Shechem.	1236
2771	Abimelech killed after three years.	1233
2772	Tola judge of Israel after Abimelech; governs twenty-three years.	1232
2795	Jair judges Israel, chiefly beyond Jordan; governs twenty-two years.	1210
2799	VI. Servitude under the Philistines and the Ammonites.	1206
2817	Jephthah delivers the Israelites beyond Jordan.	1187
2823	Jephthah dies, and is succeeded by Ibzan.	1182
2830	Ibzan dies, and Elon succeeds him.	1175
2840	Elon dies: Abdon succeeds him.	1165
2848	Abdon dies. The high priest Eli succeeds as judge of Israel.	1157
2849	VII. Servitude under the Philistines forty years. Judges xiii. 1. Samuel born. Under his judicature God raises Samson, born 2849.	1155
2867	Samson marries at Timnath.	1137
2868	Samson burns the ripe corn of the Philistines.	1136
2887	Samson delivered to the Philistines by Dalilah; kills himself under the ruins of the temple of Dagon, with a great multitude of Philistines. He defended Israel twenty years, from 2867 to 2887.	1117
2888	War between the Philistines and the Israelites. The ark taken by the Philistines. Death of the high priest Eli: he governed Israel forty years. The Philistines send back the ark with presents. It is deposited at Kirjath-jearim. Samuel is acknowledged chief and judge of Israel thirty-nine or forty years. Victory of the Israelites over the Philistines.	1116
2908	The Israelites ask a king of Samuel.	1096
2909	Saul is appointed, and consecrated king.	1095
2911	War of the Philistines against Saul, who, having disobeyed Samuel's orders, is rejected by God. Jonathan's victory over the Philistines.	1093

A. M.		B. C.
2919	The birth of David, the son of Jesse.	1085
294	Samuel sent by God to Bethlehem to anoint David.	1063
2942	War of the Philistines against the Israelites. David kills Goliath.	1062
2943	Saul, urged by jealousy, endeavours to slay David.	1061
2944	to David flees to various places to avoid the jealousy of Saul.	1060
2948	War of the Philistines against Saul. Saul causes the ghost of Samuel to be raised. He loses the battle, and kills himself.	1056
2949	Ishbosheth son of Saul acknowledged king; reigns at Mahanaim beyond Jordan.	1055
	David acknowledged king by Judah, and consecrated a second time. Reigns at Hebron.	
2956	Abner quits Ishbosheth; resorts to David. Is treacherously slain by Joab.	1048
	Ishbosheth being assassinated, David is acknowledged king over all Israel, and consecrated the third time at Hebron.	
2957	Jerusalem taken from the Jebusites by David, who makes it the royal city.	1047
2959	David brings the ark from Kirjath-jearim to Jerusalem.	1045
2960	David designs to build a temple to the Lord; is diverted from it by the prophet Nathan.	1044
	David's war against the Philistines, against Hadadezer, against Damascus, and against Idumæa, continued about six years.	
2967	David's war against the king of the Ammonites, who had insulted his ambassadors.	1037
2968	David's war against the Syrians, who had assisted the Ammonites.	1036
2969	Joab besiegeth Rabbah, the capital of the Ammonites. David commits adultery with Bathsheba, and causes Uriah to be killed. Rabbah taken.	
2970	After the birth of the son conceived by the adultery of David with Bathsheba, Nathan reproves David for his crime. David's repentance.	1034
2971	Solomon born.	1033
2981	Absalom's rebellion against his father David. Absalom killed by Joab.	1023
	Sedition of Sheba, the son of Bichri, appeased by Joab.	
2985	The beginning of the famine sent by God, to avenge the death of the Gibeonites, unjustly slain by Saul; ended in 2986.	1021
2987	David numbers the people. God gives him the choice of three plagues by which to be punished.	1017
2988	David prepares for the building of the temple on Mount Zion, in the threshing-floor of Araunah.	1016
	Rehoboam son of Solomon born.	
2989	Abishag the Shunamite given to David. Adonijah aspires to the kingdom. David causes his son Solomon to be crowned, who is proclaimed king by all Israel.	1015
2990	The death of David, aged 70 years. Solomon reigns alone, having reigned about six months in the lifetime of his father David. He reigned in all 40 years.	1014
	Adonijah slain, and Abiathar deprived of the office of high priest; Zadok in future enjoys it alone. Joab slain in the temple.	
2991	Solomon marries a daughter of the king of Egypt.	1013
2992	Irim king of Tyre congratulates Solomon on his accession to the crown; Solomon requires of him timber and workmen to assist him in building the temple.	1012
	Solomon lays the foundation of the temple.	
3000	The temple of Solomon finished, being seven years and a half in building.	1005

PERIOD VI.

From the Building of the Temple to the Babylonish Captivity, 400 years.

A. M.		B. C.
3001	Dedication of the temple.	1004
3012	Solomon finishes the building of his palace, and of that of his queen, the daughter of Pharaoh.	992
3026	Jeroboam rebels against Solomon. He flies into Egypt to Shishak.	978
3029	The death of Solomon, Succession of Rehoboam, and the revolt of the ten tribes. Jeroboam the son of Nebat acknowledged king of the ten tribes.	975

A. M.	B. C.	<i>Kings of Judah, for 388 years.</i>	<i>Kings of Israel, for 254 years.</i>	A. M.	B. C.
3029	975	Rehoboam, intending to subdue the ten tribes, is commanded to forbear. Reigned 17 years.	Jeroboam, son of Nebat, the first king of Israel, or of the revolted ten tribes.	3029	975
3030	974	The priests and Israelites that fear the Lord, withdraw in great numbers from the kingdom of Israel into that of Judah.	Jeroboam, son of Nebat, king of Israel abolishes the worship of the Lord, and sets up the golden calves. Reigned 19 years.	3030	974
3032	972	Rehoboam gives himself up to impiety.			
3033	971	Shishak king of Egypt comes to Jerusalem; plunders the temple and the king.			
3046	958	Rehoboam dies. Abijam succeeds him; reigns three years.			
3047	957	Abijam's victory over Jeroboam; who loses many thousands of his troops.	Jeroboam overcome by Abijam, who kills 500,000 men.	3047	957
3049	955	Abijam dies. Asa succeeds him.	Jeroboam dies; Nadab his son succeeds: reigns two years.	3050	954
3053	949	Asa suppresses idolatry in Judah.	Nadab dies; Baasha succeeds him. Reigns 20 years.	3054	950
3055	951	Jehoshaphat son of Asa born.			
3063	941	Asa's victory over Zerah king of Ethiopia, or Cush.			
3064	940	Asa engages Ben-hadad king of Syria to make an irruption into the territory of the kingdom of Israel, to force Asa to quit his undertaking at Ramah.	Baasha builds Ramah, to hinder Israel from going to Jerusalem. — His territories invaded by Ben-hadad king of Damascus.	3064	940
			Baasha dies; Elah his son succeeds him; reigns two years.	3074	930
			Elah killed by Zimri, who usurps the kingdom seven days.	3075	929

		<i>Kings of Judah.</i>	<i>Kings of Israel.</i>		
A. M.	B. C.			A. M.	B. C.
			Omri, besieges Zimri in Tirzah; he burns himself in the palace.	3075	929
			Omri prevails over Tibni. Reigns alone in the 31st year of Asa.	3079	925
3080	924	Jehoram son of Jehoshaphat born.	Omri builds Samaria; makes it the seat of his kingdom.	3080	924
3087	917	Asa troubled with a lameness (probably the gout), places his confidence in physicians, rather than in God.	Omri dies.	3096	918
			Ahab his son succeeds: reigns 22 years.		
3090	914	Asa dies, having reigned 41 years.	The prophet Elijah in the kingdom of Israel.		
		Jehoshaphat succeeds Asa.	He presents himself before Ahab, and slays the false prophets of Baal.	3096	908
3092	912	Expels superstitious worship.	Gives the prophetic unction to Elisha.		
3097	907	Ahaziah born, son of Jehoram and Athaliah, and grandson of Jehoshaphat.	Ben hadad king of Syria besieges Samaria; is forced to quit it.	3103	901
			Returns the year following; is defeated at Aphek.	3104	900
3106	898	Jehoshaphat nominates his son Jehoram king; makes him his viceroy.	Ahab invests his son Ahaziah with the royal power and dignity.	3106	898
3107	897	Jehoshaphat accompanies Ahab in his expedition against Ramoth-gilead; where he narrowly escapes a great danger.	Ahab wars against Ramoth-gilead; is killed in disguise.	3107	897
			Ahaziah succeeds: reigns 2 years.		
3108	896	Jehoshaphat equips a fleet for Ophir: Ahaziah king of Israel partaking of the design, the fleet is destroyed by tempest.	Ahaziah, falling from the lattice of his house, is dangerously wounded, and dies; Jehoram his brother succeeds him, and makes war against Moab.	3108	896
		About this time Jehoshaphat is invaded by the Ammonites and Moabites, over whom he obtains a miraculous victory.	Elisha foretells victory to the army of Israel, and procures water in abundance.	3109	895
		Elijah removed from this world in a fiery chariot.			
3112	892	Jehoshaphat invests his son Jehoram with the royal dignity.			
3115	889	Jehoshaphat dies; having reigned 25 years. Jehoram succeeds him.			
3116	888	Jehoram, at the importunity of his wife Athaliah, introduces into Judah the worship of Baal.			
3117	887	Jehoram smitten by God with an incurable disease, loses his bowels.			
3118	886	Jehoram makes his son Ahaziah viceroy, on as-			

A. M. B. C.		<i>Kings of Judah.</i>	<i>Kings of Israel.</i>	A. M. B. C.	
		sociate in his kingdom. Jehoram dies; having reigned four years.			
3119	885	Ahaziah reigns but one year. Joash or Jehoash born. Homer the Greek poet flourishes.	Samaria besieged by Ben-hadad king of Syria.— Ben-hadad and his army, seized with a panic, flee during the night.	3119	885
3120	884	Ahaziah accompanies Jehoram king of Israel to the siege of Ramoth-gilead. Ahaziah slain by Jehu. Athaliah kills all the royal family; usurps the kingdom. Jehoash is preserved and kept secretly in the temple six years.	Elisha, going to Damascus, foretels the death of Ben-hadad, and the reign of Hazael. Jehoram marches with Ahaziah against Ramoth-gilead; is dangerously wounded, and carried to Jezreel. Jehu rebels against Jehoram; kills him. Jehu reigns 28 years. (2 Kings x. 36.)	3120	884
3126	878	Jehoiada the high priest sets Jehoash on the throne of Judah, and slays Athaliah. Jehoash reigns 40 years.			
3140	864	Amaziah son of Joash born.			
3147	857	Jehoash repairs the temple.	Jehu dies, Jehoahaz his son succeeds him. Reigns 17 years.	3148	856
3164	840	Zechariah the high priest, son of Jehoiada, killed in the temple by order of Jehoash. Hazeal king of Syria wars against Jehoash.			
3165	839	Hazeal returns against Jehoash; and forces large sums from him. (2 Chron. xxiv. 23.) Jehoash dies, and is succeeded by Amaziah, who reigns 29 years.	Jehoahaz dies. Joash or Jehoash, whom he had associated with himself, on the throne A. M. 3162, succeeds him. The death of Elisha. Hazeal king of Syria dies; and Ben-hadad succeeds him.	3165	841
3177	827	Amaziah wars against Idumæa.	Jehoash wars against Ben-hadad.	3163	836
3178	826	Amaziah wars against Jehoash king of Israel; is defeated by him. Uzziah or Azariah, son of Amaziah, born.	Jehoash obtains a great victory over Amaziah king of Judah.	3178	826
3194	810	Amaziah dies; Uzziah or Azariah succeeds him; reigns 52 years. Isaiah and Amos prophesy in Judah under this reign.	Jehoash king of Israel dies; Jeroboam II. succeeds him; reigns 41 years. Jonah, Hosea, and Amos in Israel, prophesy during this reign.	3179	825
3221	783	Jotham son of Uzziah born.	Jeroboam II. dies; Zachariah his son succeeds him; reigns 6 months; perhaps 10 years. The chronology of this reign is very perplexed. 2 Kings xv. 8. 12. places the death of Zachariah in the 38th year of Uzziah, allowing him a reign of but six months; yet, reckoning what time remains to	3222	784

. M. B. C.		<i>Kings of Judah.</i>	<i>Kings of Israel.</i>	A. M. B. C.	
			the end of the kingdom of Israel, we must either admit an interregnum of 9 or 11 years between Jeroboam II. and Zachariah, as Archbishop Usher does; or we must suppose that Jeroboam II. reigned 51 years; or that his reign did not begin till 3191, and ended in 3232, which is the year of the death of Zachariah.		
			Zachariah killed by Shallum, after reigning six months.	3232	773
			Shallum reigns 1 month; is killed by Menahem, who reigns 10 years.	3233	772
			Pul (or Sardanapalus) king of Assyria invades Israel; Menahem becomes tributary to him.		
			Menahem dies; Pekahiah his son succeeds.	3243	761
3246	758	Uzziah dies; Jotham his son succeeds; reigns 16 years.	Pekahiah assassinated by Pekah, son of Remaliah, who reigns 28 years.	3245	759
		Isaiah sees the glory of the Lord. (Isa. vi.) Isaiah and Hosea continue to prophesy.	Arbaces, governor of Media, and Belesis, governor of Babylonia, besiege Sardanapalus king of Assyria in Nineveh.	3254	750
			After a siege of 3 years, Sardanapalus burns himself in his palace, with all his riches. Arbaces is acknowledged king of Media, and Belesis of Babylon.	3257	748
3261	743	Rezin king of Syria, and Pekah king of Israel, invade Judah.	Belesis, otherwise Baladan or Nabonassar, founds the Babylonian empire. This famous epoch of Nabonassar falls 743 years before Christ, 747 before A.D.		
3262	742	Jotham dies; Ahaz succeeds him; reigns 16 years.	Ninus junior, called in Scripture Tiglath-pileser, successor of Sardanapalus, continues the Assyrian empire, but reduced into very narrow limits. Reigned 19 years; according to others, 30 years.		
		Rezin king of Syria, and Pekah king of Israel, continue their hostilities against Judah. •			
		Isaiah foretells to Ahaz the birth of the Messiah, and a speedy deliverance from the two kings his enemies. Nevertheless, the year following they return again and spoil his country.			
3263	741				
3264	740	The Idumeans and Philistines also invade Judæa.	Tiglath-pileser defeats and slays Rezin king of Damascus; enters the land of Israel, and takes	3264	740
		Ahaz invites to his as-			

A. M.	B. C.	<i>Kings of Judah.</i>	<i>Kings of Israel.</i>	A. M.	B. C.
		assistance Tiglath-pileser king of Assyria, and submits to pay him tribute.	many cities and captives, chiefly from Reuben, Gad, and the half tribe of Manasseh. The first captivity of Israel.		
			Hoshea son of Elah slays Pekah, and usurps the kingdom.	3265	739
			Reigns peaceably the 12th year of Ahaz. (2 Kings xviii. 1.) Reigns nine years.	3274	730
			Shalmaneser succeeds Tiglath-pileser king of Nineveh.	3276	728
3277	727	Ahaz remits the royal authority to his son Hezekiah.			
3278	726	Ahaz king of Judah dies. Hezekiah restores the worship of the Lord in Judæa, which Ahaz had subverted.			
3279	725	They begin again to gather into the temple first fruits and tithes, for the maintenance of the priests and ministers.	Hoshea makes an alliance with So king of Egypt, and endeavours to shake off the yoke of Shalmaneser.	3279	725
			Shalmaneser besieges Samaria; takes it after three years siege, and carries beyond the Euphrates the tribes that Tiglath-pileser had not already carried into captivity in the ninth year of Hoshea; of Hezekiah the sixth.	3280	724
			Among the captives carried away by Shalmaneser was Tobit, of the tribe of Naphthali, at Nineveh.	3283	721
3290	714	Hezekiah revolts from the Assyrians; makes a league with Egypt and Cush, against Sennacherib.	<i>End of the kingdom of Israel, after it had subsisted two hundred and fifty-four years.</i>		
3291	713	Sennacherib invades Hezekiah, and takes several cities of Judah. Hezekiah's sickness and miraculous cure. Sennacherib besieges Lachish. Hezekiah gives money to Sennacherib, who still continues his war against him. He sends Rabshakeh to Jerusalem, and marches himself against Tirhakah king of Cush or Arabia. Returning into Judæa, the angel of the Lord destroys many thousands of his army; he retires to Nineveh, where he is slain by his sons.			

A. M.	<i>Judah alone.</i>	B. C.
3292	Esar-haddon succeeds Sennacherib. Probably about this time Baladan, or Merodach-Baladan, king of Babylon, sends to congratulate Hezekiah on the recovery of his health, and to inquire about the prodigy on that occasion. Micah the Morasthite, and Nahum, prophesy.	712
3293	Tartan sent by Esar-haddon against the Philistines, the Idumæans, and the Egyptians.	711
3294	Esar-haddon sends an Israelitish priest to the Cuthites settled at Shechem.	710
3306	Hezekiah dies; Manasseh succeeds him; reigns 55 years.	698
3323	Esar-haddon becomes master of Babylon; re-unites the empires of Assyria and Chaldæa.	681
3328	Manasseh taken by the Chaldæans, and carried to Babylon.	676
3347	The war of Holofernes, who is slain in Judæa by Judith.	657
3361	Manasseh dies. He returned into Judæa a considerable time before, but the period is not exactly known.	643
	Amon succeeds him; reigns two years.	
3363	Amon dies; Josiah succeeds him.	641
	Zephaniah prophesies at the beginning of his reign.	
3370	Josiah endeavours to reform abuses. He restores the worship of the Lord.	634
3376	Jeremiah begins to prophesy, in the thirteenth year of Josiah.	628
3380	The high priest Hilkiah finds the book of the law in the treasury of the temple; in the 18th year of Josiah. 2 Kings xxii. 3. xxiii. 23. 2 Chron. xxxiv. 8. xxxv. 19. Money collected for repairing the temple.	624
	The prophetess Huldah foretells the calamities that threaten Judah.	
3381	A solemn passover by Josiah and all the people.	623
	Joel prophesies under Josiah.	
3394	Josiah opposes the expedition of Necho king of Egypt against Carchemish, is mortally wounded, and dies at Jerusalem. Jeremiah composes lamentations on his death.	610
	Jehoahaz is placed on the throne by the people; but Necho, returning from Carchemish, deposes him, and installs Eliakim, or Jehoiakim, his brother, son of Josiah; who reigns 11 years.	
3395	Habakkuk prophesies under his reign.	609
3398	Nebuchadnezzar besieges and takes Carchemish; comes into Palestine; besieges and takes Jerusalem; leaves Jehoiakim there, on condition of paying him a large tribute. Daniel and his companions led captive to Babylon. 2 Kings xxiii. 36. 2 Chron. xxxv. 5, 6. Jerem. xxvi. 1. xlv. 2.	606
3399	Jeremiah begins to commit his prophecies to writing.	605
3402	Nebuchadnezzar's dream of a great statue explained by Daniel.	602
3404	The history of Susanna at Babylon.	600
	Jehoiakim revolts against Nebuchadnezzar, who sends an army from Chaldæa, Syria, and Moab, which ravages Judæa, and brings away 3023 Jews to Babylon, in the seventh year of Jehoiakim. (2 Kings xxiv. 2. Jerem. lii. 28.)	
3405	Cyrus born, son of Cambyses and Mandane.	599
	Jehoiakim revolts a second time against Nebuchadnezzar; is taken, put to death, and cast to the fowls of the air. Reigned 11 years.	
3406	Jehoiachin or Coniah, or Jeconiah, succeeds him.	598
	Nebuchadnezzar besieges him in Jerusalem, and takes him, after he had reigned three months and ten days. He is carried to Babylon, with part of the people. Mordecai is among the captives.	
	Zedekiah, his uncle, is left at Jerusalem in his place, and reigns 11 years.	
	Zedekiah sends ambassadors to Babylon.	
	Jeremiah writes to the captive Jews there. (Baruch vi.)	
3409	Seraiah and Baruch sent by Zedekiah to Babylon.	595

Judah alone.		
A. M.		R. C.
3410	Ezekiel begins to prophesy in Chaldæa.	594
3411	He foretels the taking of Jerusalem and the dispersion of the Jews. (Ezek. iv. v. viii. ix. x. xi. xii.)	593
	Zedekiah takes secret measures with the king of Egypt to revolt against the Chaldæans.	
3414	Zedekiah revolts.	
	Nebuchadnezzar marches against Jerusalem; besieges it; quits the siege to repel the king of Egypt, who comes to assist Zedekiah; returns to the siege.	590
	Jeremiah continues prophesying during the whole of the siege, which continued almost three years.	
	• Ezekiel also describes the same siege in Chaldæa.	
3416	Jerusalem taken on the ninth day of the fourth month (July), the 11th year of Zedekiah.	588
	Zedekiah endeavouring to flee by night, is taken, and brought to Riblah, to Nebuchadnezzar; his eyes are put out, and he is carried to Babylon.	
3416	Jerusalem and the temple burnt; seventh day of the fourth month. The Jews of Jerusalem and Judæa carried captive beyond the Euphrates; the poorer classes only left in the land.	
	<i>Thus ends the kingdom of Judæa, after it had subsisted four hundred and sixty-eight years, from the beginning of the reign of David: and three hundred and eighty-eight years from the separation of Judah and the ten tribes.</i>	
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PERIOD VII.		
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<i>From the Babylonish Captivity to the Birth of Christ, 588 years.</i>		
3416	The beginning of the seventy years captivity foretold by Jeremiah.	588
	Gedaliah made governor of the remains of the people. He is slain.	
3417	Jeremiah carried into Egypt by the Jews, after the death of Gedaliah; prophesies in Egypt. (Jerem. xlv.)	587
	Ezekiel in Chaldæa prophesies against the captives of Judah. (Ezek. xxxiii.)	
3419	The siege of Tyre by Nebuchadnezzar lasted thirteen years. During this interval Nebuchadnezzar wars against the Idumæans, the Ammonites, and Moabites.	585
	Obadiah prophesies against Idumæa.	
3432	Tyre taken by Nebuchadnezzar.	572
	Nebuchadnezzar wars against Egypt.	
3433	He returns to Babylon.	571
3434	Nebuchadnezzar's dream of a great tree.	570
3435	His metamorphosis into an ox.	569
3442	His return to his former condition.	562
3444	He sets up a golden statue for worship.	560
	Daniel's three companions cast into the fiery furnace.	
	Nebuchadnezzar's death, after reigning forty-three years from the death of Nabonassar his father, who died in 5399.	
	Evil-Merodach his son succeeds him; reigns but one year.	
3445	Belshazzar his son succeeds him.	559
	Daniel's visions of the four animals. (Dan. vii.)	
3446	Cyrus liberates the Persians, and takes the title of king.	558
3448	Belshazzar's supicious feast; his death.	556
	Darius the Mede succeeds Belshazzar.	
3449	Daniel's prophecy of the seventy weeks. (Dan. ix. x.)	555
3450	Darius decrees that supplication should be made to no other God but himself.	554

A. M.		B. C.
3450	Daniel cast into the lions' den.	554
	Cyrus meditates the destruction of the empire of the Medes and Chaldæans; begins with the Medes; having overcome Astyages king of the Medes, his uncle by the mother's side, he gives him the government of Hyrcania.	
3455	Cyrus marches against Darius the Mede, his uncle; but first wars against the allies of his uncle Darius; particularly against Cræsus king of Lydia.	549
3456	He attempts Babylon, and takes it.	548
3457	He sets the Jews at liberty, and permits their return into Judæa. The first year of his reign over all the East.	547
3458	The Jews returning from captivity, renew the sacrifices in the temple.	546
3475	Cyrus dies, aged 70 years.	529
	Cambyses succeeds him. The Cuthites, or Samaritans, obtain a prohibition forbidding the Jews to continue the building of their temple.	
3478	Cambyses wars in Egypt five years.	526
3480	He kills his brother Smerdis.	524
3485	Cambyses dies.	521
	The seven Magi usurp the empire. Artaxata (or Artaxerxes), one of them, forbids the building of the temple.	
	Seven chiefs of the Persians slay the Magi.	
3483	Darius, son of Hytaspes, otherwise Ahasuerus, acknowledged king of the Persians; marries Atossa, the daughter of Cyrus.	521
3484	Haggai begins to prophesy; reproaches the Jews for not building the house of the Lord.	520
3485	The Jews re-commence building the temple.	519
	About this time Zechariah begins to prophesy.	
3486	Darius allows the Jews to rebuild their temple.	518
	Here, properly, end the seventy years of captivity foretold by Jeremiah, which began A. M. 5416.	
3487	The feast of Darius, or Ahasuerus; he divorces Vashti.	517
3488	He espouses Esther.	516
3489	The dedication of the temple of Jerusalem, rebuilt by Zerubbabel.	515
3495	The beginning of the fortune of Haman.	509
	He vows the destruction of the Jews, and procures from Ahasuerus an order for their extermination.	
3496	Esther obtains a revocation of this decree.	508
	Haman hung on the gallows which he had prepared for Mordecai.	
	The Jews punish their enemies at Shushan, and throughout the Persian empire.	
3519	Darius, or Ahasuerus, dies; Xerxes succeeds him.	485
3531	Xerxes dies; Artaxerxes succeeds him.	473
3537	He sends Ezra to Jerusalem, with several priests and Levites, in the seventh year of Artaxerxes. (Ezra vii. 1. 7, 8.)	467
3538	Ezra reforms abuses among the Jews, especially concerning their strange wives.	466
3550	Nehemiah obtains leave of Artaxerxes to visit Jerusalem, and to rebuild its gates and walls.	454
	Dedication of the walls of Jerusalem.	
	Nehemiah prevails with several families in the country to dwell in Jerusalem.	
3551	The Israelites put away their strange wives.	455
	Nehemiah renews the covenant of Israel with the Lord.	
3563	Nehemiah returns to king Artaxerxes.	441
3565	Nehemiah comes a second time into Judæa, and reforms abuses.	439
	Zechariah prophesies under his government; also Malachi, whom several have confounded with Ezra.	
3580	Nehemiah dies.	424
	Eliashib, the high priest who lived under Nehemiah, is succeeded by Joiada, who is succeeded by Jonathan, who is killed in the temple by	

A. M.		B. C.
	Jesus his brother: the successor of Jonathan is Jaddus or Jaddua. The exact years of the deaths of these high priests are not known.	
5654	Artaxerxes Ochus sends into Hyrcania several Jews whom he had taken captive in Egypt.	350
5671	Alexander the Great enters Asia.	333
5672	Besieges Tyre; demands of the high priest Jaddus the succours usually sent to the king of Persia; Jaddus refuses.	332
	Alexander approaches Jerusalem; shews respect to the high priest: is favourable to the Jews; and grants them an exemption from tribute every Sabbatical year.	
	The Samaritans obtain Alexander's permission to build a temple on Mount Gerizim.	
5673	Alexander conquers Egypt; returns into Phœnicia; chastises the Samaritans, who had killed Andromachus the governor; gives the Jews part of their country.	331
5674	Darius Codomannus, the last king of the Persians, dies.	330
5681	Alexander the Great dies, first monarch of the Greeks in the East. Judæa in the division of the kings of Syria.	323 320
5684	Ptolemy son of Lagus conquers it: carries many Jews into Egypt.	
5690	Antigonus retakes Judæa from Ptolemy.	314
5692	Ptolemy son of Lagus conquers Demetrius son of Antigonus near Gaza: becomes again master of Judæa.	312
	Judæa returns to the jurisdiction of the kings of Syria; the Jews pay them tribute some time. According to the Pseudo-Aristeas's narrative concerning the Septuagint, Judæa is in subjection to the kings of Egypt under the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus.	
5727	The Septuagint version supposed to be really made about this time.	277
5745	Antiochus Theos king of Syria begins to reign, and grants to the Jews the privileges of free denizens throughout his dominions.	261
5758	Ptolemy Euergetes makes himself master of Syria and Judæa.	246
	The high priest Jaddus dying in 5682, Onias I. succeeds him, whose successor is Simon the Just, in 5702. He dying in 5711, leaves his son Onias II. a child; his father's brother Eleazar discharges the office of high priest about thirty years. Under the priesthood of Eleazar, the version of the Septuagint is said to be made. After the death of Eleazar in 5744, Manasseh, great uncle of Onias, and brother of Jaddus, is invested with the priesthood.	
5771	Manasseh dying this year, Onias II. possesses the high-priesthood. Incurs the indignation of the king of Egypt, for not paying his tribute of twenty talents: his nephew Joseph gains the king's favour, and farms the tributes of Cœlo-Syria, Phœnicia, Samaria, and Judæa.	235
5783	Ptolemy Euergetes king of Egypt dies; Ptolemy Philopator succeeds him.	221
5785	Onias II., high priest, dies; Simon II. succeeds him.	219
5786	Antiochus the Great wars against Ptolemy Philopator.	218
5787	Ptolemy Philopator defeats Antiochus at Raphia in Syria.	217
	Ptolemy attempts to enter the temple of Jerusalem, but is prevented by the priests. He returns into Egypt; condemns the Jews in his dominions to be trodden to death by elephants. God delivers his people.	
5788	The Egyptians rebel against Ptolemy Philopator; the Jews take his part.	216
5800	Ptolemy Philopator dies; Ptolemy Epiphanes, an infant, succeeds him.	204
5802	Antiochus the Great conquers Phœnicia and Judæa.	202
5805	Simon II., high priest, dies; Onias III. succeeds him.	199
5806	Scopas, the general of Ptolemy Epiphanes, retakes Judæa from Antiochus.	198
5807	Antiochus defeats Scopas; is received by the Jews into Jerusalem.	197
	(Polyb. lib. xvi Joseph Antiq. lib. xiii. c. 3.)	

A. M.		B. C.
3807	Arius king of Lacedemon writes to Onias III., and acknowledges the kindred of the Jews and Lacedemonians. The year uncertain. Perhaps it was rather Onias I.	197
3812	Antiochus the Great gives his daughter Cleopatra in marriage to Ptolemy Epiphanes king of Egypt; and as a dowry, Cœlo-Syria, Phœnicia, Judæa, and Samaria.	192
3815	Antiochus, declaring war against the Romans, is overcome, and loses great part of his dominions. He preserves Syria and Judæa.	189
3817	Antiochus dies; leaving Seleucus Philopator his successor. Antiochus, his other son, surnamed afterwards Epiphanes, at Rome as an hostage.	187
3828	Heliodorus, by order of Seleucus, attempts to rifle the treasure of the temple at Jerusalem. Is prevented by an angel. Onias III. goes to Antioch to vindicate himself against calumnies. Seleucus sends his son Demetrius to Rome to replace his brother Antiochus, who had been a hostage there fourteen years. Antiochus journeying to return into Syria, Seleucus is put to death by the machinations of Heliodorus, who intends to usurp the kingdom. Antiochus, at his arrival, is received by the Syrians, as a tutelary deity; and he receives the name of Epiphanes.	176
3829	Jason, son of Simon II., high priest, and brother of Onias III., now high priest, buys the high priesthood of Antiochus Epiphanes. Several Jews renounce Judaism, for the religion and ceremonies of the Greeks.	175
3831	Antiochus Epiphanes meditates war against Ptolemy Philometor king of Egypt. Is received with great honour in Jerusalem.	173
3834	Menelaus offers three hundred talents of silver for the high priesthood more than Jason had given for it; he obtains a grant of it from Antiochus. Menelaus, not paying his purchase-money, is deprived of the high priesthood; Lysimachus, his brother, is ordered to perform the functions of it. Menelaus, gaining Andronicus governor of Antioch in the absence of Antiochus Epiphanes, causes Onias III., the high priest, to be killed. Lysimachus, thinking to plunder the treasury of the temple of Jerusalem, is put to death in the temple. Antiochus prepares to make war in Egypt. Prodiges are seen in the air over Jerusalem. A report that Antiochus Epiphanes was dead in Egypt; Jason attempts Jerusalem, but is repulsed. Antiochus, being informed that some Jews had rejoiced at the false news of his death, plunders Jerusalem, and slays 80,000 men.	170
3836	Apollonius sent into Judæa by Antiochus Epiphanes. He demolishes the walls of Jerusalem, and oppresses the people. He builds a citadel on the mountain near the temple, where the city of David formerly stood. Judas Maccabæus, with nine others, retires into the wilderness.	168
3837	Antiochus Epiphanes published an edict, to constrain all the people of his dominions to uniformity with the religion of the Grecians. The sacrifices of the temple interrupted; the statue of Jupiter Olympius set up on the altar of burnt sacrifices. The martyrdom of Eleazar at Antioch; of the seven brethren Maccabees and their mother. Mattathias and his seven sons retire into the mountains: the Assidæans join them. About this time flourishes Jesus, the son of Sirach, author of the book of Ecclesiasticus.	167
3838	Mattathias dies, is succeeded by Judas Maccabæus. Judas defeats Apollonius, and afterwards Seron.	166
3839	Antiochus Epiphanes, wanting money to pay the Romans, goes to	165

A. M.		B. C.
	Persia. Nicanor and Gorgias, and Ptolemy son of Dorymenes, enter Judæa, at the head of their armies.	
3839	Judas Maccabæus defeats Nicanor. Gorgias declines a battle against Judas.	165
3840	Lysias, coming into Judæa with an army, is beaten and forced to return to Antioch.	164
	Judas purifies the temple, after three years' defilement by the Gentiles. The anniversary of this purification is called Encœnia in John x. 22. Timotheus and Bacchides, generals of the Syrian army, are beaten by Judas.	
	Antiochus Epiphanes dies in Persia; his son Antiochus Eupator, aged nine years, succeeds him; under the regency of Lysias.	
	Judas wars against the enemies of his nation in Idumæa, and beyond Jordan.	
	Timotheus a second time overcome by Judas.	
3841	The people beyond Jordan and in Galilee conspire against the Jews: are suppressed by Judas and his brethren.	163
	Lysias, coming into Judæa, is forced to make peace with Judas; and returns to Antioch.	
	A letter of king Antiochus Eupator in favour of the Jews.	
	The Roman legates write to the Jews, and promise to support their interests with the king of Syria.	
	The treachery of Joppa and Samaria chastised by Judas.	
	Judas wars beyond Jordan; defeats a general of the Syrian troops, called Timotheus, different from the former Timotheus.	
	Judas attacks Gorgias in Idumæa, having defeated him, finds Jews killed in the fight who had concealed gold under their clothes, which they had taken from an idol's temple at Jamnia.	
	Antiochus Eupator invades Judæa in person; besieges Bethshur, and takes it; besieges Jerusalem.	
	Philip, who had been appointed regent by Antiochus Epiphanes, coming to Antioch, Lysias prevails with the king to make peace with the Jews, and return to Antioch; but before he returns, he enters Jerusalem, and causes the wall to be demolished that Judas had built, to secure the temple from the insults of the citadel.	
3842	Menelaus the high priest dies; is succeeded by Alcimus, an intruder.	162
	Onias IV. son of Onias III., lawful heir to the dignity of high priest, retires into Egypt, where some time after he built the temple Onion. Vide <i>infra</i> , 3854.	
	Demetrius son of Seleucus sent to Rome as an hostage; escapes from thence and comes into Syria, where he slays his nephew Eupator; also Lysias, regent of the kingdom; and is acknowledged king of Syria.	
	Alcimus intercedes with Demetrius for the confirmation of the dignity of high priest which he had received from Eupator.	
3843	Alcimus returns into Judæa with Bacchides, and enters Jerusalem.	161
	Alcimus is driven thence, and returns to Demetrius; who appoints Nicanor, with troops, to take him back to Judæa. Nicanor makes an accommodation with Judas, and lives for some time in good intelligence with him.	
	Alcimus accuses Nicanor of betraying the king's interest. Demetrius orders Nicanor to bring Judas to him.	
	Judas attacks Nicanor, and kills about 5000 men.	
	Death of Rhazis, a famous old man, who chooses rather to die by his own hand than to fall alive into the hands of Nicanor.	
	Judas obtains a complete victory, in which Nicanor is killed.	
	Bacchides and Alcimus again sent to Judæa.	
	Judas gives them battle, and dies like a hero, on a heap of enemies slain by him.	
	Jonathan Maccabæus chosen chief of his nation, and high priest, in the place of Judas.	

A. M.		B. C.
5843	The envoys return, whom Judas had sent to Rome, to make an alliance with the Romans. Bacchides pursues Jonathan; he, after a slight combat, swims over the Jordan in sight of the enemy.	161
5844	Alcimus dies.	160
5846	Jonathan and Simon Maccabæus are besieged in Bethbesson, or Beth-agla. Jonathan goes out of the place, raises soldiers, and defeats several bodies of the enemy. Simon, his brother, makes several sallies, and opposes Bacchides. Jonathan makes proposals of peace to Bacchides, which are accepted. Jonathan fixes his abode at Mikmash, where he judges the people.	158
5851	Alexander Balas, natural son of Antiochus Epiphanes, comes into Syria to be acknowledged king.	155
5852	Demetrius Soter king of Syria writes to Jonathan, to ask soldiers against Alexander Balas. Balas also writes to Jonathan, with offers of friendship and the dignity of high priest. Jonathan assists Balas, puts on the purple, and performs the functions of high priest for the first time at Jerusalem, which he makes his ordinary residence, in the year of the Greeks 160. Demetrius's second letter to Jonathan.	152
5854	Demetrius Soter dies. Alexander Balas is acknowledged king of Syria. Onias IV., son of Onias III., builds the temple Onion in Egypt. A dispute between the Jews and Samaritans of Alexandria concerning their temples. The Samaritans are condemned by the king of Egypt, and the temple of Jerusalem is preferred to that of Gerizim. Aristobulus, a Peripatetic Jew, flourishes in Egypt under Ptolemy Philopator. Demetrius Nicanor, eldest son of Demetrius Soter, comes into Cilicia to recover the kingdom of his father. Apollonius, to whom Alexander Balas had trusted his affairs, revolts to Demetrius Nicanor. He marches against Jonathan Maccabæus, who continues in the interest of Alexander Balas. Apollonius he put to flight.	150
5858	Ptolemy Philometor king of Egypt comes into Syria, pretending to assist Alexander Balas, but he really designs to dethrone him.	146
5859	Alexander Balas gives battle to Philometor and Demetrius Nicanor; he loses it, and flies to Zabdiel king of Arabia, who cuts off his head. Ptolemy Philometor dies in Syria. Cleopatra, his queen, gives the command of her army to Onias, a Jew, son of Onias III. Onias restrains Ptolemy Physcon, son of Philometor. Jonathan besieges the fortress of the Syrians at Jerusalem. Demetrius comes into Palestine; Jonathan finds means to gain him by presents.	145
5860	Demetrius Nicanor attacked by the inhabitants of Antioch, who had revolted. Jonathan sends him soldiers, who deliver him. Tryphon brings young Antiochus, son of Alexander Balas, out of Arabia, and has him acknowledged king of Syria. Jonathan espouses his interest against Demetrius Nicanor. Jonathan renews the alliance with the Romans and Lacedemonians. He is treacherously taken by Tryphon in Ptolemais, who some time afterwards puts him to death.	144
5861	Simon Maccabæus succeeds Jonathan. Tryphon slays the young king Antiochus Theos, and usurps the kingdom of Syria. Simon acknowledges Demetrius Nicanor, who had been dispossessed of the kingdom of Syria, and obtains from him the entire freedom of the Jews.	143
5862	Syrian troops that held the citadel of Jerusalem capitulate. Demetrius Nicator, or Nicanor, goes into Persia with an army; is taken by the king of Persia.	142

A. M.		B. C.
3862	Simon acknowledged high priest, and chief of the Jews, in a great assembly at Jerusalem.	142
3864	Antiochus Sidetes, brother of Demetrius Nicanor, becomes king of Syria; allows Simon to coin money, and confirms all the privileges the Syrian kings had granted to the Jews.	140
3865	The return of the ambassadors Simon had sent to Rome to renew his alliance with the Romans.	139
3866	Antiochus Sidetes quarrels with Simon, and sends Cendebeus into Palestine to ravage the country. Cendebeus is beaten by John and Judas, Simon's sons.	138
3869	Simon killed by treachery, with two of his sons, by Ptolemy his son-in-law, in the castle of Docus.	135
3870	Hyrcanus, or John Hyrcanus, succeeds his father Simon. Antiochus Sidetes besieges Hyrcanus in Jerusalem. Hyrcanus obtains a truce of eight days to celebrate the feast of tabernacles; makes peace with Antiochus. Hyrcanus finds money in David's tomb, or rather the hidden treasures of the kings of Judah.	134
3873	Antiochus Sidetes goes to war against the Persians; Hyrcanus accompanies him. Antiochus is conquered and slain.	131
3874	Hyrcanus shakes off the yoke of the kings of Syria, sets himself at perfect liberty, and takes several cities from Syria.	130
3875	He attacks the Idumæans, and obliges them to receive circumcision.	129
3877	He sends ambassadors to Rome, to renew his alliance with the Roman power. While the two kings of Syria, both of them called Antiochus, war against each other, Hyrcanus strengthens himself in his new monarchy.	127
3894	He besieges Samaria; takes it after a year's siege. (Joseph. Antiq. lib. xiii. c. 18.)	110
3895	Hyrcanus dies after a reign of twenty-nine years.	109
3898	Under his government the three principal Jewish sects, the Pharisees, the Sadducees, and the Essenes, are supposed to have first appeared, but their exact epochs are not known. Judas, otherwise called Aristobulus, or Philellen, succeeds John Hyrcanus; associates his brother Antigonus with him in the government; leaves his other brethren and his mother in bonds; suffers his mother to starve in prison; takes the diadem and title of king; and reigns one year. He declares war against the Ituræans. Antigonus his brother defeats them and obliges them to be circumcised. (Joseph. Antiq. lib. xiii. c. 19.) Antigonus slain at his return from this expedition, by order of his brother Aristobulus.	106
3899	Aristobulus dies, after reigning one year. Alexander Jannæus, his brother succeeds him; reigns 26 years. He attempts Ptolemais; but hearing that Ptolemy Lathurus is coming to relieve the city, he raises the siege and ravages the country.	105
3900	Ptolemy Lathurus obtains a great victory over Alexander king of the Jews.	104
3901	Cleopatra queen of Egypt, fearing that Lathurus would give her disturbance in Egypt, sends the Jews, Helcias and Ananias, against him with a powerful army. She takes Ptolemais.	103
3902	Alexander Jannæus king of the Jews makes an alliance with Cleopatra, and takes some places in Palestine.	102
3906	Attacks Gaza, takes it and demolishes it.	98
3907	The Jews revolt against him, but he subdues them. He wages several wars abroad with success.	97

A. M.		B. C.
3907	His subjects war against him during six years, and invite to their assistance Demetrius Eucerus king of Syria. Alexander loses the battle; but the consideration of his misfortune reconciles his subjects to him. Demetrius Eucerus obliged to retire into Syria. The years of these events are not accurately known.	97
3919	Antiochus Dionysius king of Syria invades Judæa; attacks the Arabians, and beats them; but is defeated and slain. Aretas king of the Arabians attacks Alexander; having overcome him, treats with him, and retires.	85
3920	Alexander Jannæus takes the cities of Dion, Gerasa, Gaulon, Seleucia, &c.	84
3926	Alexander Jannæus dies, aged 49 years. (Joseph. Antiq. lib. xiii. c. 23.) Alexandra, otherwise Salome or Saline, his queen, succeeds him; gains the Pharisees to her party by giving them great power. Reigns nine years.	78
3933	Aristobulus II., son of Alexander Jannæus, heads the old soldiers of his father; is discontented with the government of his mother and the Pharisees.	71
3954	Takes possession of the chief places of Judæa during his mother's sickness.	70
3955	Alexandra dies. Hyrcanus her eldest son, and brother of Aristobulus, is acknowledged king. Reigns peaceably two years. Battle between Hyrcanus and Aristobulus; Hyrcanus is overcome at Jericho. Hyrcanus had been high priest under the reign of his mother nine years; then is king and pontiff two years; is afterwards only priest four years; after which he is ethnarch 19 years. At last he is Herod's captive and sport eight years. So that he survived his father Alexander Jannæus 48 years.	69
3958	Peace concluded between the brothers, on condition that Hyrcanus should live privately in the enjoyment of his estate, and Aristobulus be acknowledged high priest and king. Thus Hyrcanus, having reigned three years and three months, resigns the kingdom to Aristobulus II. who reigns three years and three months.	66
3959	Hyrcanus, at the instigation of Antipater, seeks protection from the king of the Arabians. Aretas king of the Arabians undertakes to replace Hyrcanus on the throne. Aristobulus is worsted, and forced to shut himself up in the temple of Jerusalem. He sends deputations, first to Gabinius, and then to Scaurus, who were sent by Pompey into Syria; offers them great sums of money to engage on his side, and to oblige Aretas to raise the siege of the temple. Scaurus writes to Aretas, and threatens to declare him an enemy to the Roman people if he does not retire. Aretas withdraws his forces; Aristobulus pursues him, gives him battle, and obtains a victory over him.	65
5940	Pompey comes to Damascus, and orders Aristobulus and Hyrcanus to appear before him. Hears the cause of the two brothers, and advises them to live in good understanding with each other.	64
3941	Aristobulus withdraws into Jerusalem, and maintains the city against Pompey, who besieges it. The city and temple taken. Aristobulus taken prisoner; Hyrcanus made high priest and prince of the Jews, but not allowed to wear the diadem. Judæa reduced to its antient limits, and obliged to pay tribute to the Romans. Alexander the son of Aristobulus, having escaped from the custody of those who were carrying him to Rome, comes into Judæa, and raises soldiers.	63

End of the Kingdom of Syria.

A. M.		B. C.
3941	Augustus, afterwards emperor, is born.	63
3947	Gabinus, a Roman commander, defeats Alexander and besieges him in the castle of Alexandrion. Alexander surrenders, with all his strong places.	57
3948	Aristobulus, escaping from Rome, returns into Judæa and endeavours to repair the castle of Alexandrion. Is hindered by the Romans, who put his little army to flight. He flies to Machæron, with a design to fortify it; but he is presently besieged in it. After some resistance he is taken, and sent a second time prisoner to Rome.	56
3949	Ptolemy Auletes king of Egypt by money induces Gabinus to come into Egypt to restore him to the throne. John Hyrcanus furnishes Gabinus with provisions for his army; and writes to the Jews in Pelusium to favour the passage of the Romans. While Gabinus is in Egypt, Alexander son of Aristobulus wastes Judæa. Gabinus defeats him at the foot of Mount Tabor.	55
3950	Crassus succeeds Gabinus in the government of Syria. Crassus, passing into Syria, and finding the province quiet, makes war against the Parthians.	54
3951	He comes to Jerusalem, and takes great riches out of the temple. He marches against the Parthians; is defeated, and killed by Orodes.	53
3952	Cassius brings the remains of the Roman army over the Euphrates; takes Tirlakah, and brings from thence above 30,000 Jewish captives. He restrains Alexander, son of king Aristobulus. Civil war between Cæsar and Pompey.	52
3955	Julius Cæsar making himself master of Rome, sets Aristobulus at liberty, and sends him with two legions into Syria. Those of Pompey's party poison Aristobulus. Scipio slays young Alexander, son of Aristobulus. The battle of Pharsalia. Antipater governor of Judæa. The library of Alexandria burnt.	49
3957	Antipater, by order of Hyrcanus, joins Mithridates, who was going into Egypt with succours for Cæsar, and assists him in reducing the Egyptians. Cæsar, having finished the war in Egypt, comes into Syria; confirms Hyrcanus in the high priesthood. Antigonus son of Aristobulus remonstrates to Cæsar; but Cæsar is prejudiced against him by Antipater. Antipater takes advantage of the indolence of Hyrcanus; makes his eldest son Phazael governor of Jerusalem, and Herod, another of his sons, governor of Galilee. Herod is summoned to Jerusalem to give an account of his conduct; but finding himself in danger of being condemned, retires to his government. Hillel and Shammai, two famous Rabbins, live about this time. Shammai was master to Hillel. Jonathan son of Uzziel, author of the Chaldee paraphrase, was a disciple of Hillel. Josephus says that Pollio was master of Shammai. Jerome says, that Akiba succeeded Shammai and Hillel in the school of the Hebrews. Cæsar passes into Africa. Cato kills himself at Utica.	47
3959	Hyrcanus sends ambassadors to Julius Cæsar to renew alliance. The alliance renewed in a manner very advantageous to the Jews.	45
3960	After the death of Julius Cæsar the ambassadors of the Jews are introduced into the senate, and obtain their whole request. The Jews of Asia confirmed in their privilege of not being compelled to serve in the wars.	44
3961	Cassius demands 700 talents from Judæa. Malthus causes Antipater to be poisoned.	43

A. M.		B. C.
3961	Herod causes Malchus to be killed, to revenge the death of his father Antipater.	43
3962	Felix, having attacked Phazael, is shut up by him in a tower, from whence Phazael would not release him but on composition.	42
	Herod and Phazael tetrarchs of Judæa.	
3963	Antigonus II., son of Aristobulus, gathers an army and enters Judæa. Herod gives him battle, and routs him.	41
	Mark Antony coming into Bithynia, some Jews resort to him, and accuse Herod and Phazael before him; but Herod coming thither, wins the affections of Antony.	
	Mark Antony, being at Ephesus, grants the liberty of their nation to such Jews as had been taken captive by Cassius; and causes the lands to be restored that had been unjustly taken away from the Jews.	
	Mark Antony coming to Antioch, some principal Jews accuse Herod and Phazael; but instead of hearing them, he established the two brothers tetrarchs of the Jews.	
	The Jews afterwards send a deputation of a thousand of their most considerable men to Antony, then at Tyre, but in vain.	
3964	Antigonus, son of Aristobulus, prevails with the Parthians to place him on the throne of Judæa. The Parthians seize Hyrcanus and Phazael, and deliver them up to Antigonus.	40
	Phazael commits suicide; the Parthians carry Hyrcanus beyond the Euphrates, after Antigonus had cut off his ears.	
	Herod forced to flee to Jerusalem, and thence to Rome, to implore assistance from Antony. He obtains the kingdom of Judæa from the senate, and returns with letters from Antony, who orders the governors of Syria to assist him in obtaining the kingdom. He reigned 37 years.	
3965	He first takes Joppa, then goes to Massada, where his brother Joseph was besieged by Antigonus.	39
	He raises that siege, and marches against Jerusalem; but the season being too far advanced, he could not then besiege it.	
	He takes the robbers that hid themselves in the caves of Galilee, and slays them.	
	Macherus, a Roman captain, with Joseph, Herod's brother, carry on the war against Antigonus, while Herod goes with troops to Antony, then besieging Samosata.	
3966	After the taking of Samosata, Antony sends Sosius with Herod into Judæa to reduce it.	58
3967	After several battles Herod marches against Jerusalem; the city is taken; Antigonus surrenders himself to Sosius, who insults him. Antigonus carried prisoner to Antony at Antioch, who orders him to be beheaded. End of the reign of the Asmonæans, after 126 years.	57
	Ananel high priest the first time.	
3968	Hyrcanus is treated kindly by the king of the Parthians. Obtains leave to return into Judæa.	56
	Because Hyrcanus could no longer exercise the functions of the high priesthood, Herod bestows that dignity on Ananel.	
3969	Alexandra, mother of Marianne and Aristobulus, obtains of Herod that Aristobulus might be made high priest.	55
3970	Herod causes Aristobulus to be drowned after he had been high priest one year.	54
	Ananel high priest the second time.	
	Herod is sent for by Antony to justify himself concerning the murder of Aristobulus.	
	War between Augustus and Mark Antony. Herod sides with Antony.	
3973	Herod's wars with the Arabians.	51
	A great earthquake in Judæa.	
	The battle of Actium; Augustus obtains the victory over Antony.	

A. M.		B. C.
3973	Herod seizes Hyrcanus, who attempted to take shelter with the king of the Arabians; and puts him to death.	31
3974	He goes to Rome to make his court. to Augustus: obtains the confirmation of the kingdom of Judæa. Antony and Cleopatra kill themselves. The end of the kings of Alexandria, 294 years from the death of Alexander the Great.	30
3975	Augustus comes into Syria; passes through Palestine; is magnificently entertained by Herod.	29
3976	Herod puts to death his wife Marianne, the daughter of Alexandra.	28
3978	Salome, Herod's sister, divorces herself from Costobarus.	26
3979	Plague and famine rage in Judæa.	25
3982	Herod undertakes several buildings contrary to the religion of the Jews. Builds Cæsarea of Palestine.	22
3983	Agrippa, Augustus's favourite, comes into Asia; Herod visits him.	21
3984	Augustus gives Trachonitis to Herod.	20
3985	Herod undertakes to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem.	19
3988	Herod makes a journey to Rome to recommend himself to Augustus.	16
3989	He marries his two sons Alexander and Aristobulus.	15
3990	Herod comes to meet Agrippa, and engages him to visit Jerusalem.	14
3991	Domestic divisions in Herod's family. Salome, Pheroras, and Antipater at variance with Alexander and Aristobulus.	13
3995	Herod goes to Rome, and accuses his two sons Alexander and Aristobulus to Augustus.	11
3994	The solemn dedication of the city of Cæsarea that Herod had built in honour of Augustus.	10
3995	Augustus continues the Jews of Alexandria in their antient rights and privileges. Herod causes David's tomb to be opened, to take out treasure. New disturbances in Herod's family.	9
3996	Archelaus, king of Cappadocia, reconciles his son-in-law Alexander to his father Herod. Archelaus goes to Rome with Herod.	
3997	Herod makes war in Arabia.	7
3998	Herod is accused to Augustus of killing several Arabs. An angel appears to Zacharias. The conception of John the Baptist. September 24.	6
3999	Annunciation of the incarnation of the Son of God to the Virgin Mary, March 25. Herod condemns and slays his two sons Alexander and Aristobulus. Antipater son of Herod aims at the kingdom. Herod sends Antipater to Rome. The artifices of Antipater are discovered. Birth of John the Baptist, six months before the birth of Jesus.	5
4000	The birth of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, the 4th year before A. D.	<div>Year of Jesus Christ.</div> <div>Before the vulgar Æra.</div> <div>1</div> <div>4</div>
<p style="text-align: center;">PERIOD VIII.</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>From the Birth of Jesus Christ to the Completion of the Canon of the New Testament.</i></p>		
4001	The circumcision of Jesus Christ. Antipater returns from Rome; is accused and convicted of a design to poison Herod. Wise men come to worship Jesus Christ. Purification of the Holy Virgin. Jesus presented in the temple forty days after his birth.	3

A. M.		Y. of J. C.	Before V. Æ. 3
4001	Flight into Egypt. Massacre of the innocents at Bethlehem. Antipater put to death by order of Herod. Herod dies five days after Antipater. Archelaus appointed king of Judæa by the will of Herod. Return of Jesus Christ out of Egypt; he goes to dwell at Nazareth. Archelaus goes to Rome to procure of Augustus the confirmation of Herod's will in his favour. The Jews revolt; Varus keeps them in their duty. Archelaus obtains a part of his father's dominions, with the title of tetrarch, and returns to Judæa. An impostor assumes the character of Alexander son of Herod and Mariamne.		
4002	Archelaus takes the high priesthood from Joazar, and gives it to Eleazar.	2	1
4004	The Vulgar Æra, or Anno Domini; the 4th year of Jesus Christ, the first of which has but eight days.		V. Æ or A. D.
4009	Archelaus banished to Vienne in Gaul.	9	6
4010	The enrolment or taxation made by Cyrenius in Syria. This was his second enrolment. Revolt of Judas the Gaulonite—chief of the Herodians.	10	7
4012	Jesus Christ, at twelve years of age, goes into the temple of Jerusalem: continues there three days unknown to his parents.	12	9
4013	Marcus Ambivius governor of Judæa.	13	10
4017	Death of the emperor Augustus; reigned 57 years, 5 months, and 4 days. Tiberius succeeds him: reigns 22 years, 6 months, and 28 days.	17	14
4023	Tiberius expels from Italy all who profess the Jewish religion, or Egyptian superstitions.	23	20
4031	Pilate sent governor into Judæa. He attempts to bring the Roman colours and ensigns into Jerusalem, but is opposed by the Jews.	31	28
4032	John the Baptist begins to preach.	32	29
4033	Jesus Christ baptised by John the Baptist. Jesus goes into the desert. After forty days Jesus returns to John; he calls Andrew, Simon, Philip and Nathanael. The marriage of Cana, where Jesus changes water into wine. Jesus comes to Capernaum; thence to Jerusalem, where he celebrates the first passover after his baptism, this year. Nicodemus comes to Jesus by night. Jesus goes to the banks of Jordan, where he baptises. Herod Antipas marries Herodias his brother Philip's wife, he being yet alive. John the Baptist, declares vehemently against this marriage; he is put in prison. Jesus withdraws into Galilee; converts the Samaritan woman, and several Samaritans. Preaches at Nazareth, and leaves this city to dwell in Capernaum. Calling of Simon, Andrew, James and John. Jesus works several miracles. Matthew called.	33	30
4034	The second passover of our Saviour's public ministry. Jesus heals one sick of the palsy on the sabbath-day. The Jews resolve to put Jesus to death. Our Saviour's sermon on the mount. John the Baptist, in prison, sends a deputation to Jesus Christ, to inquire if he was the Messiah.	34	31

A. D.	Y. of J. C.	A. D.
35	35	32
<p>Missions of the apostles into several parts of Judæa. John the Baptist slain by order of Herod, at the instigation of Herodias in the 17th year of Tiberius. Jesus Christ feeds 5000 men with five loaves and two fishes. Jesus Christ's third passover after his baptism. He passes through Judæa and Galilee, teaching and doing miracles. Transfiguration of Jesus Christ. Mission of the seventy-two disciples. Jesus goes to Jerusalem at the feast of Pentecost. His relations would have him go to the feast of tabernacles: He tells them his hour is not yet come; however he goes thither about the middle of the feast.</p>		
36	36	33
<p>At the beginning of the 36th year of Jesus Christ, Lazarus falls sick and dies; Jesus comes from beyond Jordan, and raises him to life again. Jesus retires to Ephraim on the Jordan, to avoid the snares and malice of the Jews of Jerusalem. He comes to Jerusalem to be present at his fourth and last passover. Institutes the Lord's supper; is betrayed and crucified. His resurrection and appearance to many. Ascension into Heaven, and the miraculous effusion of the Holy Spirit.</p>		
37	37	34
<p>Seven deacons chosen. Stephen martyred. Saul persecutes the church. James the Less made Bishop of Jerusalem. Philip the deacon baptises the eunuch of queen Candace. The dispersion of the apostles from Jerusalem.</p>		
38	38	35
<p>The conversion of Saul. Matthew writes his Gospel in this or the following year.</p>		
40	40	37
<p>Pilate ordered into Italy. Tiberius dies; Caius Caligula succeeds.</p>		
41	41	38
<p>Paul escapes from Damascus by being let down in a basket. He comes to Jerusalem; is introduced to the apostles and disciples; and goes to Tarsus in Cilicia, his own country. Caligula gives Agrippa the tetrarchy of his uncle Philip. Pilate kills himself.</p>		
42	42	39
<p>Herod the tetrarch goes to Rome, in hopes of obtaining some favour from the emperor; but Caligula, being prepossessed by Agrippa, banishes him to Lyons.</p>		
43	43	40
<p>Caligula orders Petronius to place his statue in the temple of Jerusalem. The Jews obtain some delay from Petronius. Agrippa endeavours to divert the emperor from this design, and at length obtains as a great favour, that this statue should not be set up.</p>		
44	44	41
<p>Philo the Jew goes with a deputation from the Jews at Alexandria to Caligula.</p>		
44		
<p>Philo obtains an audience of the emperor, at the hazard of his life. The Jews quit Babylon, and retire to Seleucia. Caius Caligula dies; Claudius succeeds him. Agrippa persuades him to accept the empire offered by the army. Claudius adds Judæa and Samaria to Agrippa's dominions. Agrippa returns into Judæa; takes the high priesthood from Theophilus son of Ananus, and gives it to Simon Cantharus; soon after he takes this dignity from Cantharus, and gives it to Matthias.</p>		
45	45	42
<p>Saul preaches at Antioch.</p>		

A. M.		y. of J. C.	A. D.
4946	Agrippa deprives the high priest Matthias of the priesthood, and bestows it on Elioneus son of Citheus.	46	43
4047	Causes James the Great to be seized, and beheads him. Imprisons Peter, who is liberated by an angel. Some time afterwards Agrippa at Cæsarea receives a sudden stroke from heaven, and dies in great misery. Paul and Barnabas go to Jerusalem with the contributions of the believers of Antioch. At their return to Antioch, the church sends them forth to preach to the Gentiles.	47	44
4048	Cuspius Fadus sent into Judæa as governor. A great famine in Judæa. Paul and Barnabas go to Cyprus : thence to Pamphylia, Pisidia, and Lycaonia. At Lystra the people prepare sacrifices to them as gods.	48	45
4049	They return to Antioch. Cuspius Fadus recalled ; the government of Judæa given to Tiberius Alexander.	49	46
4051	Herod king of Chalcis takes the pontificate from Joseph son of Camides ; gives it to Ananias son of Nebedeus. Herod king of Chalcis dies. Ventidius Cumanus made governor of Judæa in place of Tiberius Alexander.	51	4
4052	Troubles in Judæa under the government of Cumanus. Judaizing Christians enforce the law on the converted Gentiles. The council of Jerusalem determines that the converted Gentiles should not be obliged to observation of the legal ceremonies.	52	4
4053	Peter comes to Antioch, and is reproved by Paul. Paul and Barnabas part on account of John Mark. Timothy adheres to Paul, and receives circumcision. Luke at this time with Paul. Paul passes out of Asia into Macedonia. Paul comes to Athens.	53	
4054	From Athens goes to Corinth. The Jews expelled Rome under the reign of Claudius. Felix sent governor into Judæa instead of Cumanus.	54	
4055	First Epistle of Paul to the Thessalonians. His second Epistle to the Thessalonians, some months after the first. His Epistle to the Galatians, written at the end of this, or early in the following year.	55	
4056	Paul leaves Corinth, after a stay of eighteen months : takes ship to go to Jerusalem ; visits Ephesus in his way. Apollos arrives at Ephesus : preaches Jesus Christ.	56	
4057	St. Paul, having finished his devotions at Jerusalem, goes to Antioch. Passes into Galatia and Phrygia, and returns to Ephesus, where he continues three years. Claudius the emperor dies, being poisoned by Agrippina. Nero succeeds him.	57	
4059	The first Epistle of Paul to the Corinthians. Paul forced to leave Ephesus on account of the uproar raised against him by Demetrius the silversmith. He goes into Macedonia. Second Epistle to the Corinthians.	59	
4060	Epistle to the Romans.	60	
4061	Paul goes into Judæa, to carry contributions. Is seized in the temple of Jerusalem. Is sent prisoner to Cæsarea.	61	

A. M.		Y. of J. C.	A. D.
4061	Ishmael son of Tabei made high priest instead of Ananias. Disturbances between the Jews of Cæsarea and the other inhabitants.	61	58
4063	Porcius Festus made governor of Judæa in the room of Felix. Paul appeals to the emperor. He is put on shipboard, and sent to Rome. Paul shipwrecked at Malta.	63	60
4064	He arrives at Rome, and continues there a prisoner two years. The General Epistle of James written about this time. The Jews build a wall, which hinders Agrippa from looking within the temple. Ishmael the high priest deposed. Joseph, surnamed Cabeiri, is put in: his place.	64	61
4065	Epistle of Paul to the Philippians. Epistles to the Colossians, Ephesians, and Philemon. Martyrdom of James the Less, bishop of Jerusalem.	65	62
4066	Epistle of Paul to the Hebrews, written from Italy soon after he was set at liberty. Luke writes his Gospel and the Acts of the Apostles in this or the following year. Peter arrives at Rome. Albinus, successor of Felix, arrives in Judæa. Epistle of Paul to Titus, and his first Epistle to Timothy. Mark writes his Gospel about this time.	66	63
4067	Paul comes out of Italy into Judæa; visits the churches in Crete, Ephesus, Macedonia, and Greece. Agrippa takes the high priesthood from Jesus son of Gamaliel; gives it to Matthias son of Theophilus. Gessius Florus made governor of Judæa in place of Albinus. Nero sets fire to the city of Rome; throws the blame on the Christians, several of whom are put to death. Peter writes his first Epistle, probably, from Rome.	67	64
4068	Peter writes his second Epistle, probably, from Rome, about the beginning of this year. Several prodigies at Jerusalem, this year, during the passover. Paul goes to Rome the last time; is there put into prison; also Peter. Second Epistle of Paul to Timothy. The Epistle of Jude written in this or the following year.	68	65
4069	The martyrdom of Paul and Peter at Rome. Cestius Gallus governor of Syria comes to Jerusalem; enumerates the Jews at the passover. Disturbances at Cæsarea, and at Jerusalem. Florus puts several Jews to death. The Jews rise, and kill the Roman garrison at Jerusalem. A massacre of the Jews of Cæsarea and Palestine. All the Jews of Scythopolis slain in one night. Cestius governor of Syria comes into Judæa. He besieges the temple of Jerusalem; retires; is defeated by the Jews. The Christians of Jerusalem, seeing a war about to break out, retire to Pella, in the kingdom of Agrippa, beyond Jordan. Vespasian appointed by Nero for the Jewish war. Josephus made governor of Galilee. Vespasian sends his son Titus to Alexandria; comes himself to Antioch, and forms a numerous army.	69	66
4070	Vespasian enters Judæa; induces Galilee. Josephus besieged in Jotapata. Jotapata taken; Josephus surrenders to Vespasian.	70	67

A. M.		Y. of J. C.	A. D.
4070	Tiberias and Tarichea, which had revolted against Agrippa, reduced to obedience by Vespasian. Divisions in Jerusalem. The Zealots seize the temple, and commit violences in Jerusalem. They depose Theophilus from being high priest, and put Phannias in his place. The Zealots send for the Idumæans to succour Jerusalem. They slay Ananus, Jesus son of Gamala, and Zacharias son of Baruch. The Idumæans retire from Jerusalem.	70	67
4071	Nero the emperor dies; Galba succeeds him. Vespasian takes all the places of strength in Judæa about Jerusalem. Simon son of Gioras ravages Judæa and the south of Idumæa. In this or the following year John writes his three Epistles.	71	68
4072	Galba dies; Otho declared emperor. Otho dies; Vitellius proclaimed emperor. Vespasian declared emperor by his army; is acknowledged all over the East. Josephus set at liberty. John of Giscala heads the Zealots. Eleazar, son of Simon, forms a third party; makes himself master of the inner temple, or the court of the priests.	72	69
4073	Titus marches against Jerusalem to besiege it. Comes down before Jerusalem some days before the passover. The factions unite at first against the Romans, but afterwards divide again. The Romans take the first inclosure of Jerusalem; then the second; they make a wall all round the city, which is reduced to distress by famine. July 17, the perpetual sacrifice ceases in the temple. The Romans become masters of the court of the Gentiles, and set fire to the galleries. A Roman soldier sets the temple on fire, notwithstanding Titus commands the contrary. The Romans, being now masters of the city and temple, offer sacrifices to their gods. The last inclosure of the city taken. John of Giscala and Simon son of Gioras conceal themselves in the common sewers.	73	70
4074	Titus demolishes the temple to its very foundation. He also demolishes the city, reserving the towers of Hippicos, Phazael, and Marianne. Titus returns to Rome with his father Vespasian; they triumph over Judæa.	74	71
4083	On the death of Vespasian, Domitian is declared emperor.	83	81
4095	John banished to Patmos.	98	95
4099	Domitian dies; Nerva declared emperor.	99	96
4100	John liberated from exile. John writes his Gospel and Revelation about this time.	100	97

ADDENDA TO VOL. III.

PAGE 18. note 1. *after* lib. vi. c. 5., *add*: — “It is not difficult to conceive,” — says the Rev. W. Jowett, who, in December 1823, surveyed Jerusalem from this mountain, — “observing from this spot the various undulations and slopes of the ground, that when Mount Zion, Acra, and Mount Moriah, constituted the bulk of the city, with a deep and steep valley surrounding the greater part of it, it must have been considered by the people of that age as nearly impregnable. It stands *beautiful for situation*! It is, indeed, *built* as a city that is compact together. (Ps. cxxii. 3.) *The Kings of the earth, and all the inhabitants of the world would not have believed, that the adversary and the enemy should have entered into the Gates of Jerusalem.* (Lam. iv. 12. B.C. 588.) This was said nearly two thousand four hundred years ago. And when, 650 years after, Titus besieged and took this devoted city, he exclaimed on viewing the vast strength of the place, — ‘We have certainly had God for our assistant in this war: and it was no other than God who ejected the Jews out of these fortifications: for what could the hands of men, or any machines do, towards overthrowing these towers?’” Josephus, de Bell. Jud. lib. vi. c. 9. (Jowett’s *Christian Researches in Syria, &c.* p. 256. London, 1825. 8vo.)

PAGE 25. — *Population of Jerusalem.* — A more moderate estimate of the population of the metropolis of Palestine, than those given in the page referred to, was formed by the late Professor Carlyle. He states it to consist of

Mohammedans	-	-	-	9000
Jews	-	-	-	3000
Greeks	-	-	-	2000
Latins	-	-	-	600
Armenians	-	-	-	200
Jacobites or Syrians	-	-	-	100

and two or three families of Maronites or Syrians. This would make a total of about 15,000, which is the utmost Mr. Jowett conceives the city would contain in ordinary circumstances, that is, exclusive of the pilgrims, who are crowded into the convents, and fill up many spaces in the convents which are vacant nine months in the year, thus augmenting the population by some few thousands. The last mentioned traveller is disposed to estimate the resident population at 12,000. (Walpole’s *Memoirs*, p. 187. Jowett’s *Christian Researches in Syria*, pp. 238, 290.)

PAGE 49. last line but five, *after* hell-fire, *add*: — The place now shewn as the Valley of Hinnom “is a deep ravine, closed in on the right by the steep acclivity of Mount Zion, and on the left by a line of cliffs more or less elevated. From some point in these cliffs tradition relates that the apostate betrayer of our Lord sought his desperate end: and the position of the trees, which in various parts *exchanged* the brow of the cliff, accords with the manner of his death.” (Jowett’s *Christian Researches in Syria, &c.* p. 262.)

10. The *Vale of Sharon* (Song of Sol. ii. 1. Isa. lxxv. 10.) was, as it is to this day, a spacious and fertile plain of arable land, extending from Cæsarea to Joppa. How valuable this land must have been to Solomon when he made his engagement with Hiram king of Tyre, — and to Herod when he marked his displeasure *against them of Tyre and Sidon*, — may be inferred from 1 Kings v. 7—11. and Acts xii. 20. (Ibid. p. 305.)

PAGE 168. *line 20. after Adar, add in a note:—* Much curious information relative to the Jewish Year will be found in Michaelis's Dissertation on the Hebrew Months, which is translated from the Latin by Mr. W. Carpenter, and which forms part of his "Calendarium Palestinæ." (London, 1825, 8vo.); a very useful publication for biblical students, to whom it presents, in a concise form, a Tabular View of the Principal Events of Scripture History, and the Outlines of the History of Syria, &c. &c. Michaelis's Dissertation reconciles the discrepancies between the Mosaic Institutions and the Jewish Calendar. The Calendar of Palestine is also neatly printed on a large sheet, to be hung up in the study for perpetual reference.

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